

# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 6, 1871.

## The Week.

If it had not been for the college commencements during the past week the newspapers would have suffered from dearth of matter, in spite of the activity of criminals and lunatics. There could hardly be a better proof of the dulness of the season than the amount of space the Washington correspondents devote to speculations as to whether the President will pardon Bowen the bigamist. Some think he will, others that he will not, and the chances seem to vary from day to day. The latest story is that the President has handed the whole matter over to the Attorney-General, and it is to be presumed that that official is now giving laborious days to the examination of the case. The other great subject of the President's consideration is said to be the condition of New York politics, which he is once more going to reform, and is investigating the matter at Long Branch.

The Harrisburg *Telegraph* has been looking about for a really good candidate for the Vice-Presidency, and has succeeded in finding one who is just the man for the place. "It is hard to say," the *Telegraph* observes, "whether the party or the man would be most honored by the nomination," and it adds that it is not alone in this opinion, for the Philadelphia *Morning Post* thinks that no stronger man could be associated with Grant, and that his nomination would ensure a Republican victory in Pennsylvania next year, and an overwhelming majority. Both journals point to the fact that men in their own and other States are of their mind, and cite in particular the language used the other day at a meeting in Baltimore. This gathering was at first intended to be small and very informal in its character, but enthusiasm took hold of the people assembled, numbers flocked in, a meeting was organized, Mr. S. S. Blair being chosen chairman, and resolutions regularly passed. One of these nominates Grant for re-election, another speaks of a Vice-Presidential candidate who is a man not only eminent in the councils of the nation, but who also was the most active defender of his country in the time of her troubles, and whose private traits are as eminent and honorable as his public career. In short, it is Mr. Simon Cameron whom the *Telegraph* has discovered as the candidate who, in 1872, can sweep Pennsylvania by an overwhelming majority, and for whom the Baltimore meeting was so ardent. It is not high treason, we believe, to say, in view of this discovery, that the superintendent of the Baltimore Division of the Northern Central Railroad, of which road Mr. Donald Cameron, son of the Senator, is president, is the Mr. S. S. Blair who presided at the Baltimore meeting; nor to say that the *Morning Post* of Philadelphia, which casts so sagacious an eye over our troubled politics, is asserted by the world's people to be in great part the property of Mr. Cameron; and that of the Harrisburg *Telegraph* also, it is asserted by its enemies that it too, is, in part the property of Mr. Cameron. Apparently, then, Mr. Cameron has set himself definitely to work for the Vice-Presidency, and finds supporters who have the face to say even to the people of Pennsylvania that "it is hard to say whether the party or the man would be more honored by his nomination." The simple truth is that the Republican party contains hardly a man whose nomination would be more harmful to it outside of Pennsylvania, and it is little short of a misfortune to it that its prospects should be such as to hold out to a man like him the faintest hope that his name may possibly be put upon the Republican ticket. It is not one of the least things against Grant himself as a candidate for the nomination that he has taken Cameron as one of his friends and advisers.

The peculiar position which Pennsylvania occupies in our politics may be presumed to be Mr. Cameron's ground of supposing that his reputation will not be sufficient to put him out of the question as a candidate. It is, to be sure, some time yet to the next Presidential

election, and it would require a wise man to say what are going to be the relative prospects of parties this time next year; but it would not require excessive prudence to fear that the Republican party—let alone this or that particular candidate—may need every electoral vote it can in any way get. For instance, one or two nominations readily occur to all minds as possible to be made by the Democracy, which being made would make it extremely doubtful if the Republican nominees could win. Or, on the other hand, it is conceivable that General Grant's administration, which six months ago was in such discredit and which rose again under the influence of the English negotiation, may, by taking vigorously in hand some one or two measures of excellence, as the overhauling of our financial management and of the civil service, make itself indispensable and independent of Pennsylvania politicians. In such political situations as the present, the October elections have always had a great deal to do with turning the general vote in November in this or that direction, and the Pennsylvania vote has been the most influential of those of the October States. Doubtless, a manager who, by hook or by crook, can next year carry Pennsylvania for a platform, not such as Pennsylvania left to herself would have constructed, would be a valuable party-servant of a certain kind. But we imagine that Republicans are clear enough in the opinion that Mr. Cameron a long time since put it out of his power to render such service.

We have had a fight with the Coreans, a simple sort of people, of a Chinese turn of mind, and of the Buddhist persuasion, who are now the only nation with a seaboard that has managed to avoid intercourse with foreigners. As usual, however, their doom has come upon them through their having made a "treacherous attack" on Americans, for which they refused to apologize, which led to their being assailed by the American squadron under Admiral Rodgers, handsomely pounded, and five of their forts taken with small loss. It is hardly likely that this will be the end of it. Their animosity to foreigners will be increased by what has happened, and they will make other attacks, which will be punished again, and finally they will be dragged into intercourse with the civilized world. The only way of avoiding this process is for civilized navies to stay away from Corean waters. Apparently the most marked result of the opening of Corea to the commerce of the world would be a heavy fall in tigers, which it produces in great abundance.

The Civil Service Commission have begun their sittings at Washington, and meet, we believe, daily, but of course have hardly made much progress yet beyond settling the exact nature of their functions, which they have decided to be advisory merely. It will make a good deal of difference, however, whether they report to the President, and he takes on himself the responsibility of acting on the report, or merely sends it to Congress, and leaves that body to take some action about it. One does not require to be a seer to know what will happen if he does. Congress will shelve the report, and on the ground that, though nearly every member of both Houses is in favor of civil service reform, he cannot make up his mind that "this particular measure is just what is wanted, etc." Whereas, if the President will only summon up courage to adopt the Commission's suggestions, and enforce them on his own responsibility, we shall at least get in the narrow end of the wedge, and he may certainly count on the hearty support of the country. There is one danger which we may be allowed to express the hope the Commission will avoid—we mean the danger of attempting too much. If they try to introduce fixity of tenure, or prohibit removal except "for cause," and after trial, they may depend upon it their reform will not last long, as the politicians will find no difficulty in breaking it down in practice, because the heads of departments will repudiate all responsibility for maladministration, and throw the blame on the new system, as having deprived them of all control over their subordinates. The true plan is to leave every chief absolute power of dismissal without cause, but provide that he shall not fill the place

except by competitive examination. This would deprive him of all political motives for making a change, and would gradually, even in the worst cases, wean politicians from the habit of looking on offices as a means of rewarding party services, or, indeed, of thinking anything about the political opinion of office-holders. In short, the reform ought to be confined to fixing the qualifications which office holders must have, and the mode in which they shall be selected, and, we would add also, promoted.

It were better for the judges of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts if they had never been born—for they have done the accursed thing. They have brought the cold, hard, and "legal mind" to bear on one of the warmest, most succulent, and juicy problems of the day—the right of women to be justices of the peace under the State constitution. Governor Claflin has appointed Mrs. Julia Ward Howe and Mrs. Stevens to be justices of the peace, and the Council, whose ways in the matter we do not at all like, took the opinion of the court on the question of eligibility before confirming the appointment, just as if the Governor, who is responsible to the people, was not as competent to form an opinion on this point as any of them. The court has decided that the appointment would not be valid, the laws of the State at the time of the adoption of the constitution, and the whole frame and purport of the instrument itself, and the construction put upon it for the greater part of a century afterwards, confining such offices to men. It ought to be added that the appointments in themselves were good, and the recipients will doubtless take the opinion in good part, but we doubt if the rest of the champions will acquiesce in it tamely. "Have the judges sisters, or wives, or mothers?" is a question which they are not unlikely to be asked, or "Do they dread the consequences to the male monopoly of the highest judicial offices which would speedily result from the admission of women to the lowest?"

The strongest objection to performances like this of the Governor's is that they are, as we have said once before, attempts to decide a question of the most serious kind—the admission of women to participation in the actual working of the political machinery, by what it is hardly unfair to call "a dodge." There is no question, and never has been any question, in the mind of any candid and intelligent man or woman, that no matter of what technical construction the instrument may be capable, no constitution in this country really intended women to vote and hold office, and no one doubts that their voting and holding office would make a serious difference in our social and political system, either for good or ill. It is, therefore, not *honest* to try to settle the question except by a fair and frank judgment of the men and the women of the community, even if it be reserved for men to say in what manner the government shall be carried on, and it is certainly the right of women to say whether or no they wish to be burdened with a share of it. All attempts to impose political duties on them by huggermugging between male politicians and a handful of female agitators are tricks which deserve severer reprobation than they get. The gradual increase in their number at the instigation of the woman's rights champions does not make us hopeful as to that "purification of politics" of which we have heard so much.

The Supreme Court of the same State has done another thing which will expose it to much obfurgation from another class of sentimentalists, in deciding that a mason who was fined \$500 by a trades-union association in Boston for getting some of his stone-cutting done in New York (which was a breach of the society rules), and had to pay the fine in order to avoid having his men taken away from him, and being thus prevented fulfilling his contracts, was entitled to recover the amount from the members of the association, and he has sued them accordingly. It is this class of decisions which causes the French Communists to abolish the courts the minute they get into power, and substitute for them "the justice of the people," and to call for the "sweeping away of jurisprudence."

The Californian Democrats have joined in the "new departure." They accept the three amendments to the Constitution as a final settlement of the matters with which they deal, but demand the strict construction of them; call for universal amnesty; denounce "unlawful combinations" and also the "bayonet bill" passed to suppress them; declare for a tariff for revenue only, and reprobate the protective system; condemn land-grants to corporations; abuse Congress for not repealing the income-tax, for maintaining so many tax-gatherers, and for not stopping the importation of Chinese; denounce subsidies to railroads and other corporations; call for the amendment of the State constitutions for various purposes, but notably to prohibit the lending of the State credit to corporations; express warm sympathy with the workingman, and point to legislation shortening the hours of labor and restricting Chinese immigration in proof of their sincerity; again denounce Chinamen as an "inferior people," and abuse Congress for connivance at their coming.

The Treasury statement of the National Debt shows an unexpectedly large reduction, over seven millions for the month, mainly consisting of six millions of six per cent. bonds purchased and cancelled out of surplus customs receipts. The amount of five per cents subscribed for in exchange for sixes appears to have been nearly all delivered, the amount of the former appearing over fifty millions larger than on the previous statement. The new subscriptions appear to have ceased entirely, and the accounts from the agents sent to Europe are scarcely more encouraging, in spite of the continued abundance and cheapness of money at all the great financial centres.

The commerce of this port has been active. Large receipts of breadstuffs have been followed by a decided decline in price and heavy exports. Most of the other important staples have been higher, reacting from the previous decline. Cotton has had a further advance under the influence of continued unfavorable weather for the growing crop and the accumulating evidence of a largely increased consumption during the past six months. Coal has suffered a further decline, but the consumer has scarcely received the benefit as yet. Real estate is stagnant, although some of the suburban auction sales are reported to have been successful.

In the money market the utmost apathy prevails. Rates of interest have again been lower than ever before known. Stocks have settled down materially after the failure of the disgraceful Rock Island affair, but the extreme ease of money has enabled the great cliques to prevent any serious decline while the settlement of the recent collapse is in progress. Government bonds have been higher both here and abroad, but the unfavorable condition of the exchanges continues, and the coin shipment for the week has been unusually heavy. Under its influence the premium has been firm and has advanced somewhat, but the daily fluctuations are confined within extremely narrow limits. Double-eagles are again at a premium of three-eighths to one-half per cent. over small coin.

The terror and horror combined caused by the resistance of the Commune in Paris have had the effect, which we ventured to anticipate at the time, of filling the International Association with hope, and increasing its audacity. It glories in its doings in Paris, and, so far from being ashamed of the Commune, wants the credit of all its atrocities and desperation. The English communists have also held a meeting and issued an address of sympathy, which, for what used to be called cool wickedness, has not often been surpassed, and it has evidently frightened some of the genteel and "educated" sympathizers with the Reds, and they accordingly begin to haul off. Something of the same kind has been attempted in this city, but it was not very successful. The difficulty here is that there is no great ardor for a division of goods, nearly every man having something of his own he would like to keep;



and then, owing to greater mental activity, there are very few come-outers here who have not a hobby of their own, and each man is so anxious to have his own way that no hearty union against society and property seems probable. We are glad to see that Stephen Pearl Andrews was at the meeting, and hope that he may get "Alwato" adopted as the language of the "Universal Republic."

The Treaty of Washington has been ratified by the English Government, which finally settles the *Alabama* question in the rational way in which we predicted that it might and would be settled, soon after Mr. Sumner made his speech, when we said (*Nation*, May 20, 1869) "that America had a perfectly good case against England; that all that portion of her claim for damages which is computable, and which the opinion of the civilized world will pronounce reasonable, will be paid, if firmly, calmly, and decently urged, and that along with payment can be obtained an expression of regret for the wrongdoing which brought this damage about; but the negotiations will have to be conducted by statesmen and not by rhetoricians." The most important point in the whole matter, as regards the future peace of the world, is the expression of regret, because the truth is that most wars are wars of sentiment—that is, begun on sentimental grounds, much as duels used to be fought—and if it once be established that an expression of regret for wrongdoing does not involve loss of position, though it may not put an end to fighting, it will greatly diminish it. The ratification of the treaty met with less opposition in England than was anticipated, the *ex-post-facto* operation of the basis of settlement being the only point which was made much of. It was said it was monstrous to try England for an offence under a law which was not in force when the offence was committed, but to this there was the ready reply, that if England agreed to be so tried, it was not monstrous. The slight commotion made by the treaty caused an attack in the House of Lords on the Declaration of Paris, with regard to the immunity of enemy's goods in neutral bottoms, but it ended in a "conversation."

The accounts of the French loan are still somewhat confused and partly unintelligible. But the official announcement in the Chambers leaves no doubt that the loan is a triumphant success, exceeding even the anticipations of the warmest and most sanguine friends of France, and entirely upsetting the calculations of those who believed in the serious exhaustion of the country. The amount demanded was subscribed for more than twice over in a very short space of time, and the provinces had not yet all been heard from. But it must not be forgotten that the loan is payable in *seventeen* instalments, and that there may be some difference between subscribing and paying, especially when the money paid in is necessarily to some extent sent abroad. The connection, too, of some large German banking-houses with the loan is not altogether explained, and the result has evidently surprised even the French Government itself, which only a few days ago was reported as making most strenuous exertions to secure subscriptions in Belgium. The contrast between this result and our own failure to raise one-half the amount makes the French success only appear still more extraordinary.

M. Pouyer-Quertier announced to the French National Assembly the splendid success of the new loan in its sitting of June 28. In less than six hours the agents of the Treasury had been promised \$900,000,000, Paris alone having subscribed more than half of that sum; not all the provinces had been heard from, so that the total amount of the subscriptions could not yet be ascertained. The Government, thus enabled "to hasten the deliverance of the country," the Minister added, "would not wait for the dates fixed by the Treaty of Frankfort" in paying the war indemnity. A few days later, the Bank of France began the publication of its returns, the bullion in its vaults then amounting to \$110,000,000, and the treasury balance being \$28,000,000. The long-delayed military review, which was finally held at Longchamps on the 29th, proved another success for the Government of M. Thiers, whose great ability in managing affairs, both on the stage and behind it—in spite of the endless difficulties of the situation—becomes from day to

day more apparent. No Bonapartist demonstrations, as was apprehended, were made by the soldiers, who, on the contrary, evinced a loyal enthusiasm, repeatedly cheering the old Chief of the Executive. One hundred and sixty battalions of infantry, sixty squadrons of cavalry, and three hundred pieces of artillery were on the field.

The French elections of Sunday last have resulted in an overwhelming triumph of the moderate Republicans and their associates in support of the Government of M. Thiers. The Radicals, Bonapartists, and Legitimists together have succeeded only in carrying about one-third of the electoral districts; the Orleanists seem to have had no candidates of their own, and to have voted mainly with the moderate Republicans. The accounts thus far received are, however, quite meagre and, in some respects, contradictory. Among the successful candidates we find Wolowski, the distinguished political economist, a naturalized Pole, who heads the list in Paris; the Generals Cissey and Faidherbe, the latter elected in three provincial districts; Gambetta, elected at Paris and two other places; Laboulaye, Pressensé, and D'Haussonville. Rouher is conspicuous among the beaten Bonapartists. The vote in the capital was very light, owing of course, to the losses and apathy of the laboring classes. The Republican press is jubilant over the result, while the monarchical journals have fallen to wrangling with each other. A considerable change in the position of parties in the National Assembly is naturally anticipated. What is most likely is, that the hotspurs among the Legitimists will now make a decided front against M. Thiers, in view of the fact that the prolongation of "the truce" which he advocates has proved so disastrous to the interests of their party at the very beginning.

Numberless, as might have been expected, were the manifestoes and appeals which preceded the elections. Most Bonapartists emphasized their devotion to the honor of France and of the church; others, like Rouher, made the interest of free-trade their main staff; the Royalists thundered against anarchy; the "unsubdued" of the Commune lavished imprecations against the rich, the priests, and the bloodthirsty army; the moderate Republicans dwelt on the necessity of upholding the *status quo*; the Radicals warned the people against the final and hopeless decay to which monarchy would inevitably lead them. The chief manifesto of the latter, though signed among others by Louis Blanc, is, we are sorry to find, a document full of high-sounding phrases and frantic apostrophes, without a single common-sense argument. We hear of "slumber," "death," "decay," "abyss," "fall after fall in a bottomless void," "the force of things which carries away dead things," "ruins" and "tombs"—characteristics, of course, of the past and future of monarchy in France—and are told that the Republic will cure all ills; but not a word is said concerning its failures in the past or its conditions in the future. M. Alexandre Dumas (*file*), in his late epistle, speaks much more impartially of past fictions and failures, but the remedy he proposes—ten years of virtuous life—will hardly appear palatable to the people, with whom "virtue" is not in favor, and of whom the regular political preachers demand only a vote.

The King of Italy made his formal entry into Rome on Monday, and the various government offices being transferred to it also, that city is now once more, after the lapse of fifteen centuries, the capital of Italy. The Pope has, as yet, made no move, though it was positively announced that he would take his departure as soon as the "Subalpine monarch," as he pleasantly calls him, made his appearance. The difficulty of deciding where to go to is probably insurmountable. At this moment there is not a government in Europe from which he could ask for dignified refuge. Twenty years ago, there were a dozen. He has lived to see many strange things besides the falsification of the proverb which denies the Pope a reign of twenty-five years. The Dollinger trouble continues without serious change, but Dollinger himself seems to be advancing, as he has announced that he considers the participation of the laity in the government of the church one of the great needs of the day.

## A SOUTHERN VIEW OF THE SOUTHERN PROBLEM.

THE report of the convention of taxpayers which met at Columbus, S. C., in May, has just been issued in an authentic shape, and contains perhaps the most coherent statement of the opinions of the disfranchised class of Southerners that has appeared since the process of reconstruction began. It derives all the more weight from the fact that the assertions it makes about the condition of affairs in South Carolina are now generally acknowledged by Northern observers to be true, or, at all events, well founded. When the first outcry reached us from Southerners about the doings of the new governing class which was called into existence by the Reconstruction Acts, there was very little disposition at the North to pay any attention to it. It was thought not at all unnatural that the slaveholders should wince at seeing their old slaves and their late enemies legislating for them, and then the Southern press and Southern orators had such a reputation for rhodomontade, and exaggeration, and misrepresentation, that very few people here paid much serious attention to anything that came from them. There was, moreover, a disposition which has now nearly died out, but which was the natural product of the war, to treat all the misfortunes of the "ex-rebels" as no worse than they deserved; and some of their sorrows were too purely the sorrows of a fallen aristocracy to be understood or sympathized with, even if understood, in a democratic community. The enormities of the "carpet-baggers" began to come to light at a very early period, but they made little impression, for two reasons: one was that there was a general expectation at the North, after the war, that the regeneration of the South would be worked by an influx of settlers and capitalists from the North; and there was a strong and widely diffused disposition to encourage this Northern emigration, and to think and speak well of the emigrants, and a strong indisposition to believe evil of them. The denunciations of the natives were, therefore, disregarded or laughed at, and, more than this, there was an amusing effort made by the Northern press to take all the reproach out of the word "carpet-bagger." We were told that the Pilgrim Fathers were "carpet-baggers"; that all New Englanders in the West were carpet-baggers; and, in fact, that every man who went to a new country in order to better his condition was a "carpet-bagger," just as if the term connoted nothing but change of residence with a small amount of baggage. The carpet-baggers, too, being all politicians, and Republican politicians to boot, naturally received a good deal of sympathy and support from their brethren at home. They were looked on either as missionaries spreading the faith in troublous places, or as very shrewd managers, whose skill deserved anything in the shape of reward they could lay hands on. Many a poor devil, whose labors in caucus and convention at home brought up nothing better than one chance in twelve of a post-office or of a weighership, envied the lucky fellows who had gone to the South from their side, and turned up in a few months members of the legislature or of Congress, or state treasurers, or auditors, or county clerks, in lands where book-keeping was in its infancy, and constituents were neither inquisitive nor suspicious. All these were, in their eyes, the legitimate prizes of an arduous and poorly-paid calling, the winners of which might be envied, but not denounced. The Convention was a most respectable body, and represented almost the whole of the taxpaying portion of the population. To its competency to speak for the community even such radical organs as the *Charleston Republican* bore strong testimony, and it is safe to infer, therefore, that something useful may be learned from its proceedings, both of the actual condition of government and society at the South and of the temper and tone of thought of that large body of persons who, though temporarily excluded from all share in the government, are, it is conceded on all hands, the persons who must eventually purify Southern politics, if they can be purified. We say of the "actual condition of society and government at the South," because, although we are only talking of South Carolina, that State presents an aggravated case of a disease from which most of the Southern States are suffering.

The first thing the Convention did was naturally enough to look into the condition of the State finances, and its reports on this point will furnish a good study to those who are interested in what we may call morbid politics—that is, the politics of sick societies—

for its resemblance to the financial exhibits which municipal reformers occasionally lay before the public in this city is very curious, particularly in the item of salaries, which, we need hardly say, have all risen greatly. The committee of the convention compares the amounts paid in 1866, when the new régime was established, and those paid this year, and the way the increase is distributed gives one an instructive glimpse of the carpet-bag ideas about administration and carpet-bag ways of estimating the value and importance of services. For instance, the Governor's salary remains the same, \$3,500, and the annual amount paid to the Judges is actually diminished from \$30,000 to \$28,000, though there is a slight increase in the salaries of the Chief Justice and the Associate Justices. But the expenses of the Secretary of State's office, including his salary, rose at one jump from \$500 to \$4,000. The "Adjutant Inspector-General," who has, we believe, no duties, and is himself a hollow mockery, cost the State nothing in 1866, but now the sorry wag pockets \$2,500 a year. The Treasurer's office used to cost \$3,200 a year, it now costs \$5,800; and the Attorney-General used to cost \$1,100, he now costs \$4,000; the Clerk of the Court of Appeals used to cost \$800, he now costs \$1,500. The "Solicitors," whatever they are, used to cost \$4,500, but the State now pays them \$8,000. "The Auditor of State," apparently a new officer, gets \$4,000. But the gem of the accounts is the item called "Legislative Expenses," to which we have, however, called attention in the *Nation* before now. These were, in 1866, \$45,850, and less, we believe, previously; in 1871 they were \$400,000. Of this enormous sum we believe a large portion is drawn from the treasury on the Speaker's order, or that of the President of the Senate, in advance of any appropriation. The most taking item in the account, which in many ways surpasses anything to which we have been treated in New York, is \$15,000 to a "commission to codify the laws," the duties of which, the report says, "might be discharged by a clerk"—which is either a severe reflection on carpet-bag jurisprudence or very high praise of it. Laws that a clerk can codify were either not worth making, or were so well made that he who runs may read them. Finally, the State taxes of the year reach \$2,000,000, as against \$400,000 before the war, while the value of the taxable property is diminished by one-half. Want of space compels us to pass over without notice the charges brought by the convention against the State government, in connection with their management of the State credit; the repudiation of the "Fire Loan," contracted to rebuild Charleston in 1838; their failure to publish accurate accounts of the amount of the State debt, or to exact proper bonds from the State financial agents, their reckless lending of the State credit, and their perpetration of divers jobs of greater or less magnitude.

As regards the state of mind of the delegates, as revealed in the resolutions, it is clearly that of "unrepentant rebels"; that is, they express no regret or shame at having engaged in the war, and invariably allude to "the cause" as highly respectable, and their past as great and glorious; but they acknowledge their defeat in the frankest way, and solemnly accept the results of the war as "finalities." There is also running through the speeches and resolutions that curious undertone of discontent with the way the game which they have lost was carried on, which has been the one thoroughly childish thing in the Southern demeanor both during and since the war. The South challenged the North to fight, with barbaric confidence and exultation, and well knowing what the conditions, consequences, and accompaniments of war were, and did everything that insolence of language and behavior could do to infuse bitterness into the struggle, and well knowing, too, that as it was about slavery the war had begun, and as slavery was the very basis of Southern society, the whole social system of the South, as well as its political rights, were staked on the result. Nevertheless, from first to last, it has never ceased to lament over the devastation wrought by the fighting, as if wars were usually carried on without devastation, and ever since the close of the war it has lamented over the harshness of the victor in making his own terms of peace, and in not dealing gently with the vanquished, as if the South had carried it on *à l'amiable*, as the French say, or in a way to soothe Northern feelings or disarm Northern prejudices. The Convention keeps up this dismal strain, and affirms that the South has been very hardly



treated, but nevertheless declares that they meditate no resistance to the United States Government, and intend to conduct themselves as peaceful, law-abiding citizens; to treat the reconstruction measures as "finalities," and "obey them in letter and in spirit"; that they look "to time and peaceful measures and the quiet influence of an enlightened public opinion" to solve the difficulties of Southern politics, and they "deprecate local disturbances," and appeal to the people to respect the laws, and look to them and them only for the redress of their grievances; and they supported this by other resolutions, providing for enquiry into the existence of violence and outrage, and the best means of repressing them. The committee charged with this enquiry reported that "violence prevailed to a greater or less extent in several counties of the State, but that in by far the larger number of counties no case of violence had been brought to their attention." These deeds of violence, they say, were "first simple larcencies and incendiarism, practised by ignorant, deluded, and bad men"; then came "instances of corporeal punishments and homicides, perpetrated by unknown persons on citizens, and even upon a few officials of the Government," all of which the committee pronounce "lamentable truths, which they feel called upon unequivocally to deplore and condemn." Their remedy for all these evils is one with which we in this part of the country are very familiar, but which has hardly as practical a ring as one would wish, namely, "the removal of all dishonest, incompetent, and bad men from office." The determination which they elsewhere express to push vigorously for minority representation, and not to give up the game or sit silent while Northern knaves help ignorant negroes to plunder the State, but to keep agitating, denouncing, and exposing, until they bring reform about, has a more hopeful sound; and in all this, as long as they show a sincere determination to accept the fact that the people of South Carolina now means the whole population of it, they will have the hearty sympathy of the best Northerners.

### THE COLLEGES.

It is a strict rule of the newspaper profession that the most prominent incident of the day must always be noticed editorially at the time when it is occupying, or likely to occupy, the public attention, and nothing except the exceeding shortness of the public memory prevents the performance of the duty with regard to yearly recurring events being positively agonizing to sensitive men, owing to the striking resemblance which the "remarks" of each year must necessarily bear to those of the preceding year. For instance, there are few editors so hardened as to be able to gaze without wincing on a collection of the "reflections" suggested to them during say ten years by Thanksgiving-day, or Easter, or Christmas, or the Fourth of July. The man who would make such a collection from the columns of any of our papers would be worse than a heathen, and would richly deserve, and probably would be overtaken by, the total exclusion of his name from mention for many a long day afterwards. Bad as he would be, however, we think we should rate him more highly as a philanthropist than one who should gather together the ten years' comments of any of our contemporaries on "Summer Resorts" or on "College Commencements." Fruitful as these themes seem on the outside to the professional eye, there are few topics more barren and uninviting as the sands of Sahara. Some variety was, however, introduced into the treatment of college commencements a few years ago by the rapid rise and strong influence upon the editorial mind of what may be called the *Herald* school of journalism. It was the great founder of that school who first propounded the theory that the editor of the most widely circulated daily paper was *ex-officio* the wisest man in the community, and that, in fact, a man's wisdom was in the direct ratio of the number of people he got to listen to his sayings. He also invented in support of this doctrine the light and flippant way of dealing with dignitaries, and gave to the assertion that a man was "behind the age" the terrible sting which it now possesses in nearly all the papers in the Union. The steady preaching of this theory, combined with the really steady growth of

the influence of the newspaper press on the public mind, daily advanced the editor more and more in his own estimation, as well as in that of the multitude, and finally converted the term "sanctum," which was at first used as a jocular appellation of his private room, into a synonym for a storehouse, not of all knowledge, but of all things worth knowing. Whatever branches of information or modes of investigation or ways of looking at things were not in use in newspaper offices, or found necessary in the composition of editorial articles, began to be pronounced at first "antiquated" and then useless, and finally "absurd." The world, as seen from the "sanctum" under this new light, naturally enough, looked somewhat faulty in its arrangements. Perhaps the most offensive feature in them was the prominence given to colleges, and the importance attached to college education, and colleges soon became to the new school objects of the fiercest contempt. Several of the most successful editors had had no college education; few "prominent financiers" had had any; what, then, was the use of it, and were not the pretensions of graduates very ridiculous? Under the influence of this feeling, the commencement for a time furnished considerable food for editorial ridicule. The ambitious efforts of the graduating orators and essayists were sometimes severely, sometimes jocosely, repressed, and this snubbing was not uncommonly followed by appropriate reflections on the awful waste of opportunities involved in going through a college course. After a while, the editors were reinforced by the Humanitarians, who placed all virtue in the absence of all kinds of restraint or direction, and taught that the way to reach perfection was to be yourself just as nature made you; that all you needed to know you could pick up while doing odd jobs, and the rule of right you could evolve from your own breast. Colleges under this new light gradually grew into crampers of the mind and chillers of enthusiasm.

The newspaper mode of treating colleges was, however, something more than a mere outburst of editorial flippancy and conceit. It was also in some degree the expression of the very popular belief which grew up with and was fostered by the democratic movement in politics, that inasmuch as the natural man knew as well as anybody what was good for the state, it was something very like presumption for a parcel of professors to suppose that they could better him by anything they could teach him. The "honest man," from being the peer of kings and princes, came gradually to be the peer of sages and philosophers, and somehow or other a far finer thing than if he were run through the mould of the schools. Out of the widespread praise of and confidence in popular intuitions there grew up a belief in an inner light which, in the breast of unlettered folk, not only furnished a substitute for the lore of the learned, but in dealing with the most perplexing problems of life was a far safer guide; and this belief was strengthened by the fact that, when the reformatory spirit began really to take possession of the world with heat and vigor in the second decade of this century, the persons whom it seized most easily were naturally poor and uneducated, and it met from the literati and from colleges a good deal of the snubbing which is, do what we will, one of the unfailing concomitants of experience. Then, too, the colleges were as they have always been, and must always be, the strongholds of whatever ideas or forms of culture have fairly secured supremacy. They are not and will never be, and ought not to be, the first to open their gates to innovations, and they fulfil one of their highest functions in standing firmly in whatever position they have taken up until it has been ascertained whether the new positions to which they are invited are really academical groves, in which young minds may find philosophy, or mere beer-gardens to which radicals make excursions on fine days in barges, to dance and drink and swing.

The universities are now in every country deriving the benefit of the reaction in favor of training which was sure, of course, to come in the long run, and which has come at last. The "natural man," it must be confessed, has not distinguished himself. He has tried his hand at all sorts of things, and none of them have succeeded. He has set up governments, and they have been failures; he has raised troops, and they have been destroyed; he has procured arms of precision, and they have not saved him from slaughter. Altogether, the world is rather sick of him, and, what is better, he is sick of himself. Moreover, it has come about at last that liberalism in politics and religion have

found some of their warmest and ablest champions among the friends and preachers of "culture." There are various kinds of culture in the field claiming popular confidence—Professor Huxley's, and Matthew Arnold's, and the religious culture, and there is a mixture of all three, and the multitude is somewhat perplexed as to which is the genuine article; but it now begins to be generally admitted that culture is a good thing, and, indeed, a necessary thing, for the right government of life; and that culture means, in the educational sense, training; and that training is an elaborate process, requiring special machinery, and cannot be left to chance. Consequently, the colleges, as the only institutions which make any pretence of furnishing this training, are rapidly rising in popular favor and confidence. They, too, have done much to secure this favor and confidence by a frank recognition, not so much of the superiority of any particular kind of training as the only real culture, as of the right of each student to decide for himself what means of culture he will adopt, and of the duty of the colleges to undertake within certain limits to enable him to act on his selection. It is in this recognition of the individual right of choice that the changes which have of late years been going on in American and English colleges have mainly consisted, and these changes have chimed in well with the growing faith of the people in the uses of high training and growing distrust of the rule of thumb.

The tendencies of contemporary politics, too, have all helped to strengthen this faith and deepen this distrust. The Franco-German war may be said to have afforded the most striking lesson that could be given, not simply of the dangers of gross ignorance, but of the value of the higher education. Probably no event of history ever brought into sharper contrast, taking the lowest view of the matter, the physical strength of education and the physical weakness of ignorance, and the contrast has received a sharper point than ever from the enormous difficulty in recovering from her prostration which France plainly shows.

#### PRESIDENT WOOLSEY.

By the retirement of Dr. Woolsey from the office of President of Yale College, which he has filled with unsurpassed ability and success for a quarter of a century, that institution loses from its corps of instructors the most eminent scholar that has ever served it in this capacity, and, we venture to add, with full confidence that the general verdict of competent judges would accord with our own, the foremost scholar on the long roll of its graduates. This event involves a public loss; for the influence which President Woolsey has wielded, as the head of one of our largest colleges, is of just that character which the country can ill afford to spare. His whole career, in a sense that is true of comparatively few Americans, has been that of a scholar. In his youth, he studied theology, but was not ordained as a preacher until his accession to the presidency. Having held the post of tutor at New Haven for two years, and pursued linguistic studies, mainly, for three years in Europe, he was made Professor of Greek in 1831. While holding this professorship, he prepared the editions of the Greek tragedians and of the *Gorgias* of Plato which, it is not too much to say, marked an epoch in the progress of classical study among us. In the point of accurate philology, they did not fall behind the best standards of European scholarship. At the same time, they embodied in the unobtrusive form of brief annotations a rich fund of ethical and literary criticism. In these, as in all the other writings of President Woolsey, there are found that severe simplicity of style and that economy of words which might be expected from a sworn foe of diffuse and ostentatious rhetoric. An Italian satirist said of Guicciardini's *History*, that a Spartan who had been condemned to read it as a punishment for having used three words where only two were necessary, fainted in the first sentence. Such a consequence not even a Laconian would have the least occasion to fear from any of the compositions of the retiring President. On the resignation of Dr. Day, in 1846, Dr. Woolsey reluctantly accepted the appointment to be his successor. He now assumed the work of giving instruction in modern history and political science, branches of study for which his profound acquaintance with antiquity and his familiarity with the principal modern languages, as well as the acuteness and breadth of his mind and his love of justice, specially qualified him. His extensive collection of Greek literature, with his wonted liberality, was given to the College library, and the ancient authors whom it had been his business to expound to his classes he has since taken up chiefly as a recreation. Among

the fruits of his studies in the historical department are the excellent treatise on "International Law," the *Essays on the Laws and Principles of Divorce*, and not a few review articles, such as the series on the Revival of Letters which appeared a few years ago in the *New Englander*. These productions, however, furnish no adequate measure of the extent and variety of the learned researches which President Woolsey has found time to prosecute in the midst of the numerous employments and interruptions which pertain to his office. Besides performing the full work of a professor and officiating as chaplain at daily prayers, he has not unfrequently preached on Sunday in the College Chapel; and the volume of sermons which, in compliance with solicitations from different quarters, he has recently given to the public, show in their depth of thought, impressive earnestness, and catholic spirit the satisfactory manner in which he has fulfilled this very useful, though self-imposed, portion of his labors. The wide range of the author's learning is unconsciously revealed to discerning readers of these admirable discourses, just as his taste and love of beauty occasionally break forth in unsought felicities of thought and illustration. The wonder is that President Woolsey has been able to do with exemplary thoroughness so great an amount of literary work, without neglecting in the least the multiplied and sometimes perplexing duties belonging to the presidential function. Nothing save a disciplined intellect, uncommonly rapid in its natural movement, coupled with the advantage derived from solid attainments, made in years of comparative leisure, suffices to account for it.

As an educator, President Woolsey brought to his station an innate, intense hatred of all false shows. It was inevitable that the college should feel at once and continually the inspiring influence of so ripe and conscientious a scholar. The atmosphere of his presence was a place where superficial acquisitions, conceit of knowledge, and the mere ability to use the tongue glibly where there is nothing valuable to communicate, could not flourish. The national idea, that it is the chief end of education, if not the chief end of man, to make a speech, has obtained no countenance under his administration. To say that punctuality in the performance of official duty, unwearied diligence, and a generous spirit of self-sacrifice, have characterized the retiring President, is simply to declare what has been obvious, not only to all of his colleagues, but also to every one of the pupils who, in successive classes, have gone forth from the institution. But his agency in elevating the tone of scholarship in the college is equally well known to such as are intimately conversant with it. Among the particular steps of progress which are due to him are the conversion of the senior year from a period of comparative exemption from hard work into one of the most laborious years of the course—a year filled up with very stimulating and fruitful studies in history, philosophy, and politics; and the establishment of the biennial (now annual) examinations. But these, and many other particular changes that might be mentioned, which have been effected under his auspices, would convey a very insufficient idea of the intellectual influence of President Woolsey within the walls of Yale College. The best part of his influence has probably been the practical example which he has himself daily presented to professors and students, of unselfish devotion to all good learning, of an equal modesty and thoroughness in the pursuit as well as the inculcation of knowledge, and of a cordial disgust for all sorts of affectation and shallowness. Plato's inscription over the vestibule of the house where he received his select pupils, forbidding all who were unacquainted with geometry to enter there, probably grew out of the philosopher's belief that mathematical truth is intermediate between the realm of phenomenal existence and that of ideas, between transient, apparent forms of being and the abiding, eternal realities, to the knowledge of which he would lead up the minds of his pupils. In another and broader sense, President Woolsey has fastened the attention of his pupils on that which is true and real, and has moved them to purge from their ideals of culture and character whatever is false, meretricious, and unsubstantial. He has administered his office in the spirit which Melancthon, the "Preceptor of Germany," nobly declared to be the proper temper of all instructors of youth. "The same tempers of feeling," says Melancthon, "which we bring with us into the temple, it behoves us to carry into the school"—"quos in templa animos afferimus, eosdem decet in scholas afferre." "If one comes into the school in order to bear away some portion of learning wherewith to get gain for himself or to use as an instrument of idle vanity, let him understand that he desecrates the most holy temple of science"—"Is sciat, se polluere sanctissimam templam doctrinæ."

Among the topics which President Woolsey has been called upon to discuss, from year to year, in his class-room, are the true foundations of



political society, the proper functions of government, and the law of nations. It is impossible to estimate too highly the value of the instruction which he has given on these subjects to that numerous body of young men who have had the opportunity to receive it. Apart from the sound political and ethical doctrine which he has imparted, the deep abhorrence of injustice, of venality, and popularity-hunting, which could hardly fail to communicate itself, in some measure, from teacher to pupil, has not been the least of the benefits resulting from his instructions. The essential wrong and impolicy of slavery and of governmental interference with the natural laws of trade and industry, are lessons which there are few of his students who have not fully learned.

One of the best services that President Woolsey has rendered to the college over which he has presided and to the country, is in the proof which he has given of the value of exhaustive researches, such as are characteristic of the German scholars, in connection with the subjects which he has undertaken to elucidate. It is only by this method that knowledge is capable of a steady progress, for only thus can the present build upon the past. The historical, conservative, reverent feeling which makes one a patient explorer, as well as a thinker, is peculiarly needed in this country, where there is so much mental activity and so little, proportionally, of exact and extensive knowledge even in those who assume to be public teachers. It is a vulgar error that learning of necessity cramps the thinking power or interferes with vigor and independence of judgment. President Woolsey is a signal example of the possibility of uniting the utmost force and freedom of mental action with most painstaking investigations. Indeed, in the case of this distinguished teacher, it is difficult to say which is most conspicuous, the reach of his acquisitions, the intellectual force that judges and subordinates all, or the singular purity and elevation of his character.

It is gratifying to know that the resignation of President Woolsey does not spring from physical infirmity or a reduction of mental power; and it is hardly to be doubted that a portion of his well-earned leisure will be devoted to labors profitable to the public. It is already announced that he will give some lectures in the Divinity School on heathenism and the heathen religions, a subject to which he has given much attention. But this will consume but a fraction of his time. We do not presume to offer counsel; but we feel sure that historical students would be gratified if he should feel inclined to publish some of the results of his studies upon the feudal system and other characteristic institutions of the Middle Ages. In this difficult field, he is eminently capable of serving as a guide. President Woolsey is versed in the original Scriptures, and at home in the broad field of Biblical criticism. His keen perceptions, independence, and religious earnestness, in connection with the whole course of his studies in the past, peculiarly qualify him, also, for the work of an interpreter or commentator on the books of the Bible. A volume of this character, we have been told, relating to the Acts of the Apostles, he had at one time projected, and had already gathered the materials for it, when the appearance of Professor Hackett's excellent book prevented him from prosecuting his design. However he may choose to employ the time which will be afforded by his release from academic duty, he will carry into his retirement the heartfelt respect of all who know how to honor solid worth, and to appreciate the value of unselfish, laborious, long-continued services in behalf of education and religion.

#### VICTOR CHERBULIEZ.

WE have for a long time been struck with the little justice that has been done to this writer, of whom we wish to say a few words to-day. Not that he has been treated with injustice, he has escaped all unfavorable criticism; but that he has been spoken of so little, while his merits are so considerable, is indeed surprising. He is scarcely mentioned by any French critic, never by Sainte-Beuve, and only once, and that but slightly, by Scherer. Julian Schmidt, who lets nothing escape him, devotes to him a few pages, and very good ones, in the last volume of his essays ("Bilder aus dem geistigen Leben unserer Zeit, neue Folge"); but with those exceptions, he has been unnoticed by those critics with whom American readers are familiar. His audience in Europe has been a large one, since he has for six or seven years been a contributor to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, in which his novels have been appearing, and hence many of our readers will be already familiar with him. His novels are, "Le Comte Kostin," "Le Roman d'une Honnête Femme," "Paule Méré," "L'Aventure de Ladislav Bolski," "Prosper Randoce," besides some other works, "Le Prince Vitale," "Le Grand Œuvre," and "Le Cheval de Phidias," which are rather theses in the form of fiction than regular novels, and which

even his admirers regard as failures, although they are willing enough to acknowledge their excellence in many respects. His novels, however, have shown that the possibilities of his work are so excellent that one is impatient with what would be a success for any one else, but which is a shortcoming for him.

Perhaps some of the silence of the French critics is due to their jealousy at seeing this young Genevese who outdoes the French novelists with their best weapons. The plots of his stories are always interesting, without being a perpetual chant of the joys and sorrows of breaking the seventh commandment. His healthy mind seems too robust to be fascinated unnaturally by the charm of that subject. The very fact that he is a foreigner, that his cultivation is wider than that of most Parisians, has been of service to him here. In France, certain questions had been discussed from every possible point of view by the novelists, until it seemed as if the country had fully ripened for the terrible fall this last year has shown us. The contagion had spread, too, to other countries. But meanwhile Cherbuliez was writing his novels, which might have shown that there are other objects of human interest than our neighbor's wife. Besides his superiority in the construction of his plots, his treatment of his characters is most able, and his style of the greatest brilliancy. It is never a distracting wit that dazzles one to the harm of the story, but always seems like the flow of the best of spirits, tempered by a generous cultivation. For instance, on opening "Le Roman d'une Honnête Femme" at random, the first sentence our eye meets is this:—"Il est des situations auxquelles il vaut mieux n'avoir pas eu le temps de se préparer. Notre imagination est un artiste; quand elle prévoit, elle met de l'ordre et de l'unité dans ses tableaux, et elle se trompe toujours, parce qu'elle simplifie tout et que rien n'est moins simple que la vie." Every reader of Cherbuliez will cry out at the ill success of our selection, nor will those who do not know him be at once converted by this extract; but it may serve as no extraordinary specimen of a much richer ore. Indeed, that a Genevese should have rivalled a Parisian in wit must have seemed incomprehensible, at least to Parisians.

Perhaps the greatest merit of his stories is his power of healthy treatment of all his subjects. His joyousness is never the unreflecting merriment of what we might almost call animal good-nature. It is not that he has not thought of all that pessimists tell us with such grim joy, but that he has survived it, he sees beyond it. Take "Prosper Randoce," for instance. No one who has drawn Didier can be said to be ignorant of the less buoyant way of regarding the world; yet there is not a sentence which shows a lack of sympathy for this character, any more than there is one that magnifies its importance. The whole book is written with the utmost objectivity. We see these two brothers, Didier and Prosper, who are so utterly distinct, as if they were the heroes of a play, walking about the stage before us, and at the end we put down the book perfectly contented with the story, yet without feeling that we have been tricked into our content, like children who close their ears to avoid hearing the end of a tragic tale. Perhaps this is the best of his novels. It is one that will bear re-reading; it is so rich in incident, so keen in the delineation of character. Prosper is always a puzzle, but never, in spite of all his faults, an offensive one. Didier, too, is such an excellent specimen of the analyzing, critical man of to-day that the book is perpetually charming. Of such characters as Didier, Cherbuliez is always fond, and he always draws them with the qualities of action that they possess in spite of themselves, rather than with merely the amiable impotence which they imagine to be their only trait. He is fond, too, of representing the struggle between a man's better and worse natures; and yet he does it without coarseness on the one hand, and without sentimentality upon the other; as for instance, in that charming chapter in "Le Grand Œuvre" in which is given the dialogue between the young man of that time and himself a few years before. "Ladislav Bolski," the latest of his novels, is extremely entertaining. It appeared only two years ago. The worst that can be said of it is that it is the best of sensational stories; and he who can follow the hero in his struggles against his nature, his love, and his ambition, without being moved, need not try to amuse himself with works of fiction. Novels were not written for him.

From what we have said, it will be clear what we mean in adding that his excellence is one that is not obtained by the harrowing of the feelings. The pleasure is more an intellectual than a sentimental one. We are continually treated to an interesting analysis, made by a cool demonstrator, who shows us the different moods of passion, but with the calmness of a writer who owns his creations rather than with the heat of one who is possessed, by his sympathy for mankind, by a deep pity for his

fellow-men. If we compare him with Turgeneff, we find him lacking in that inimitable pathos that lies so much deeper in man than any intellectual pleasure, however intense. He never approaches that bitterness of tragic interest of which Turgeneff is such a master. Not that his view of life is flippant or trivial, but it is a different one—cooler, calmer, rather studied, rather observed than felt. In comparing him with the contemporary French novelists, one can see at a glance the points of his superiority. He is entertaining without being low, witty but not cynical, careful but not mechanical. He never falls into the more obvious faults of his brother-writers, with their aristocratic mummery and chilly hardness.

From this writer we are authorized to expect a great deal yet. He is still a young man, and we can earnestly hope to see another of his stories in the *Revue*. Of those already published, but which we have only mentioned by name, we can recommend "Le Comte Kostia," more especially. "Paule Méré" is not so good. Although it appeared later, it bears marks of being an earlier work. "Le Roman d'une Honnête Femme" is perhaps less interesting than the others we have mentioned, but it need not be omitted on that account. One is lucky who reads no poorer books, and every one of those of Cherbuliez is marked by some of his good qualities. Better and worse are only relative terms.

## Correspondence.

### THE CHENEY CONTROVERSY AGAIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

DEAR SIR: It is not with any desire of keeping up a controversy that I reply to your review of my statement in your issue of yesterday regarding the position of Mr. Cheney and his friends. I presume your object, as mine, is simply to maintain the "right," independently of personal issues. If what I shall now say seem to you of sufficient importance, perhaps you will insert it in your columns. If not, although it seems so to me, I am willing to let the article already published stand side by side with your review, for the unbiassed judgment of such readers as are fully informed as to the merits of the question.

The fact that my illustration did not contemplate a "voluntary association" by no means implies that I am unwilling to recognize the fact that Mr. Cheney belonged to one. Indeed, I am glad that you have brought this point to notice, since it affords me the opportunity to remind you that I do not advocate resistance to the execution of any laws under which Mr. Cheney voluntarily placed himself, but only against certain intolerant enactments.

In vindication of Mr. Cheney and his friends, I am happy to take the illustration which you have provided. A man joins an association for the establishment of a smallpox hospital. He solemnly binds himself, in case he has to resort to it for the treatment either of himself or his relatives, to abide by the rules and regulations of its managers. His wife being attacked with smallpox, is conveyed thither. The house surgeon prescribes; the apothecary prepares the dose. Here, however, something occurs which is not contemplated in your illustration. The man discovers that there is an attempt made to poison his wife. He resists the surgeon in his attempts to administer the potion. He is told that the only alternative is to remove her from the hospital. This he refuses to do, for he knows that such treatment would involve danger to her life. The officers approach him, but he stands firm in his resolution to defend his wife. He would be justified in calling in aid "from the street." (In the ecclesiastical case before us, he does not do this.) But the scuffle is overheard, and from the street assistance flows in to him.

This illustration serves to point out as well as mine the principle that there is no rule without an exception—the object I had in view in my last communication.

You may differ from Mr. Cheney as to the vitality of the issue; but if the moral results of his severance in this way from our church seem to him sufficiently great, you can scarcely blame him for taking his own part, or his friends who agree with him for "rallying round him." I have no sympathy with "the sentimentalists" on the one hand, nor on the other with the advocates of reason unguided by the Spirit and Word of God. But I do believe that the rights of an enlightened conscience are often superior to human enactments, and that in such cases "we ought to obey God rather than men."

As to "revolution." Your definition of it accords with my own view of it. I should be sorry to have you believe that Mr. Cheney "rebels simply with the view of releasing himself from the restraints of authority, or

escaping the consequences of a particular sentence or enactment." He is too high-minded a man to be placed for a moment under such an imputation. He is standing for a principle—his friends for the same; and neither he nor they will be satisfied till they either see the church that they love freed from the mediæval spirit, or, when disappointed in this, shall have organized a new church in which the exercise of Christian charity shall be secured to all.

I am, dear sir, with much respect, yours very truly,

B. O. D.

[We have only to remark on this, that the question whether the dose was really poisonous was in Mr. Cheney's case submitted to a jury of experts in the manner prescribed by the articles of association, and by them decided in the negative; but Mr. Cheney still refuses either to leave the hospital or to allow the officers to perform their duties.—ED. NATION.]

## Notes.

In the various comments which have appeared in the *Nation* on the famous passage in "Romeo and Juliet," no distinct allusion has been made to what may have struck the common reader as an obvious explanation. Juliet says:

"Gallop apace, you fiery-footed steeds,  
Towards Phoebus's lodging; such a waggoner  
As Phaeton would whip you to the West  
And bring in cloudy night immediately.  
Spread thy close curtain, love-performing night,  
That runaway's eyes may wink and Romeo  
Leap to these arms untalk'd of and unseen."

Let us recall the fable of Phaeton to which Shakespeare evidently alludes. In order that his paternity might be signalized, after much solicitation he obtained from Jupiter the privilege of driving for a day the chariot of the Sun. The "fiery-footed steeds" finding themselves guided by mortal hand took advantage of the driver and ran away. As they conveyed the Sun, this "personage" became a runaway, and the great dramatist, in keeping with the classical idea with which he makes Juliet commence her monologue, makes her continue it, and playfully call the Sun "runaway," and she prays night to spread her close curtain, that his eyes may wink and not betray the meeting of Romeo and herself. This interpretation requires no strain upon words, but is easy and natural and consistent with the highly poetical and figurative character of the whole monologue, indeed, with the whole play, so full of sentiment and poetry.

—We cited lately from a Lynchburg paper an instance of political fairness and good sense under the temptation to be partisan and petty. We now have the satisfaction of presenting a still more remarkable proof of the emancipation of the Southern mind, inasmuch as in the subjoined extract from the *Richmond Enquirer* of June 16, the rhetoric for which the South generally has been long distinguished, and for which even Richmond itself used to show some predilection, is punctured with as little feeling as if the critic had been born in the temperate shadow of Bunker Hill:

With his body bent slightly forward, his eye blazing, his hand raised aloft, grasping a copy of Magna Charta, he exclaimed: "When you can tear the live thunder from its home in the burning ether, and bind it at the footstool of tyranny, then, and not till then, will I accept the situation."—*Mr. Robert Toombs, as described by an Augusta paper.*

We beg leave to remark that we do not know by what authority Mr. Toombs calls the thunder "live." Secondly, How does he know that it resides in "the burning ether"? Thirdly, Thunder is nothing but noise, and we cannot with propriety speak of "tearing a noise." Fourthly, We do not see the connection between binding this noise to "the footstool of tyranny" and the time when Mr. Toombs might feel himself at liberty "to accept the situation." That is all.

—Fresh light is thrown on the naval operations of the late war in Europe by a pamphlet just published in Berlin: "Unsere Flotte im deutsch-französischen Kriege," by Capt. O. Livonius. The author was in command of the turret-ship *Arminius*, which he carried safely through the French fleet from the Baltic to the Jade in the latter part of July, and remained at this station till the close of hostilities. He had the additional advantage of being in the confidence of his admiral, and for particulars as to the German defence his narrative is more satisfactory than the "Campaign of 1870" which we recently noticed. The iron-clads *König Wilhelm*, *Friedrich Karl*, and *Prinz Adalbert* had been sent out on an experimental cruise in the Atlantic just before the outbreak of the war, and had already experienced those defects of their machinery which subsequently incapacitated them from taking the offensive. The squadron was intend-



ing to sail to Fayal, but being warned in season made a timely return to Wilhelmshaven by the 16th of July, the French admiral being so much in ignorance of the fact that on the 25th and the succeeding days he was cherishing the illusion that he should still succeed in intercepting these the flower of the German navy. Though the disposition of the German squadron defending the Jaldemight alone have deterred the French from attempting an attack, they stood much more in dread of the enemy's torpedoes, and fancied them to be where not only they were not laid, but could not be made to stay. Their fears, after all, were much exaggerated, as the force of the currents made it exceedingly difficult for the Germans to keep the torpedoes in place; and, in fact, what with their drifting with the changes of the tide and endangering the German ships themselves, and what with their extreme touchiness while being handled, they cost more German lives than French, if, indeed, they took any of the latter. The German experience thus corresponded pretty nearly with that of the Confederates during the rebellion, and the lesson of each is that this branch of defensive warfare is as yet only in its infancy. The *Weser-Zeitung*, in reviewing Captain Livonius's work, observes that it fails to explain why the wooden fleet, which had no machinery to be deranged, and was not dependent on depth of water and had not the excuse of being poor sailers, so little distinguished itself, but permitted the French without molestation to ship arms and munitions from America. Perhaps this question will be answered by some future pamphleteer.

—It is going on five years since the establishment of what we may venture to call the very best of all the English societies which, from time to time, have set themselves to reprinting some of the works, inaccessible but for them, which lie at the foundation of our literature. But the Early English Text Society, useful as it has been, is not yet prosperous, if, indeed, it is self-supporting. Very much it owes to the self-sacrificing enthusiasm of its Secretary, Mr. F. J. Furnivall, and probably it might, but for him, have found its difficulties insuperable. Just at present it is waiting to see if it can get money enough to publish its next year's instalment of texts, of which it has several all prepared for the press. During this year just past, it has given, in return for the one-guinea subscription which it asks, no less than five books, containing matter, most of which is valuable, and all of which is curious and interesting; and it proposes to give as many next year. Its final issue of texts for last year was made last month, and contained the *Minor Poems of Sir David Lyndsay*, with a critical essay on Lyndsay, by Professor Nichol, of Oxford and Glasgow; "The Time's Whistle," a collection of satires of the time of James I.; and a curious collection of "Legends of the Holy Rood," or early English and Saxon poems concerning the cross. This is illustrated with copies of manuscript illuminations of the nails, hammer, scourge, crown of thorns, and other instruments of Christ's torture. Now that our booksellers and importers have begun to reckon the shilling sterling at about as many cents as it used to pass for in old times, before the war had carried it up to half a dollar, there is rather more reason, perhaps, and, at all events, there seems to be more than there was at the time of the Society's establishment, why American readers should become subscribers. The subscription need not be for more than a year. Indeed, we believe that the Society has on hand copies of most of its publications, and will even allow the subscriber to antedate his subscription, and take the books of that year which pleases him best. Of course there is choice, some of the works republished being for the student of English; some, like the five-volume "Percy Ballads Manuscript," being for "every gentleman's library;" and many others being well suited to such general readers as have anything bookish in their tastes.

—The book published by the Early Text Society next before the publication of the texts above-mentioned is, for instance, a very good example of the sort of reading which would interest and please very many readers who could not be called students or antiquarians, and it stands by no means alone in this category among the Society's publications. Its title is: "The Fyrst Boke of the Introduction of Knowledge, made by Andrew Boorde, of Physycke Doctor, edited, with life of Andrew Boorde, and large Extracts from his 'Breviary,' by F. J. Furnivall." Boorde was the original "merry Andrew," for though he began life as a Carthusian monk, and, when "dispensed with the relygyon" by the Pope, took up the grave profession of medicine, he was, nevertheless, a humorist and jester by nature and habit, and if what is told of him is true, he used to frequent fairs and markets, and, setting himself in the midst of them, drew the people together by jocose speeches and stories, after which he would prescribe for them. "A rambling head and inconstant mind" is Antony a Wood's characteristically civil remark by way of accounting for Boorde's manner

of practising medicine, and doubtless he had in his composition more or less of the vagabond; but in this reprint of his *Breviary* and *Book of Knowledge* he appears as a man of good learning in his profession, and with plenty of sound sense and shrewdness. He was bred a Carthusian monk, but appears to have left the order, under a Papal dispensation, for the purpose of studying medicine. He betook himself to Montpellier, at that time a renowned school of medicine, and on his return went to Scotland, either for the study or the practice of his profession. The Scotch he evidently was not fond of. "Shortly to conclude," he says, "trust yow no Skott, for they wyll yowse flattering wordes, and all ys falshoode." He got on with them, however, after a fashion: "Thei takyth me for a Skotysh mane's sone," he explains, "for I name my self Karre, and so the Karres callyth me cosyn, thorow the which I am in more fauer." But still, says he, "it is naturally geuen, or els it is of a deuelysshe disposition of a Scottysh man not to loue nor fauer an Englyshe man." It is improbable that Boorde went to Scotland for the purpose of study, as Edinburgh had not then the repute as a medical school which it has since enjoyed; but he was not yet free from apprehensions of being taken as a runaway monk by the Charter-house people, and may have thought it prudent to remove to some distance. Or it may be that he had then begun doing for Secretary Cromwell what he afterwards did for him on the Continent, where he was employed to travel and report how Henry VIII. was regarded by the French, the Genoese, Dutch, and other foreigners. It was in his journeyings of this kind that Boorde acquired that knowledge of Europe which he has set down in prose and verse in his "Book of the Introduction of Knowledge:" "the whych doth teache a man to speake all maner of languages, and to know the usage and fashion of all maner of countreys." It is a mixture of guide book, philology, satire, manual of useful knowledge, and other matters, and is highly amusing. In making the round of Europe the author begins with his own countrymen, and appears to be most struck with their proneness to change the fashion of their clothes, and with their talent for cursing and swearing. The Englishman is figured in a rude woodcut, holding in one hand a pair of shears, and in the other a roll of cloth, while underneath are these verses—"ryme dogrell," as Boorde remarks:

"I am an Englishman, and naked I stand here,  
Myn-yn in my mynde what rayment I shall were;  
For now I wyll were thys, and now I wyll were that,  
And now I wyll were I cannot tell what."

As for the swearing, he says: "In all the worlde ther is no regyon nor countree that doth use more swerynge than is used in England, for a chylde that scars can speak, a boy, a gyrl, a wenche nowadays wyl swear as great othes as an old knave and an old drab." English independence, too, as well as the swearing and the mutability of English fashions, Boorde insists upon:

"No man shall let me, but I wyl have my mind."

The Welsh and Irish fare worse; and the doctor's old friends the Scotch, of course, come in for hard knocks. The device of putting these attacks on national vices into the mouth of the sinner himself, who is made to stand up and affirm himself to be thus and thus, comically enhances their effectiveness. One can imagine the state of mind in which Captain Fluellen would be thrown by these lines, especially if he had ever heard "Taffy was a Welshman":

"I am a Welshman, and do dwel in Wales,  
I haue lound to serche boudgetts and looke in males;  
I loue not to labour nor to delue nor to dyg,  
My fngers be lymed lyke a lyme twig."

The old charges are brought against the Scotch:

"I am a Scottyshe man, and trew I am to Fraunce;  
In euery countrey my selfe I do aduance;  
I wyll boost my selfe, I will crake and face,  
I loue to be exalted here and in euery place.  
I am a Scottyshe man, and haue dissembled mouche  
And in my promise I haue not kept touche."

An Englyshe man I cannot naturally loue."

So the doctor goes through Europe, making a good many sensible remarks as he goes. In his *Breviary*, from which Mr. Furnivall makes copious extracts, Boorde treats of dietetics and the care of health, beginning in his treatment of the latter subject as far back as the rules for choosing a good situation for one's house, and throughout showing a freedom from professional prejudice and a practical wisdom that make him nearly as instructive as he is entertaining.

—"The Battle of Dorking" is said to have sold five additional editions—which would be five thousand copies—of *Blackwood's*, and its sale as a pamphlet by itself has also been large. It is still talked about, and various persons are mentioned as possible writers of it; a brother to the

Colonel Hamley to whom the authorship is commonly attributed, a Mr. Pullene, and one or two more. The publishers, though saying nothing definite, seem rather to encourage the notion that the article was not written by Colonel Hamley. This, perhaps, is because that gentleman holds an office under Government, and Mr. Gladstone's economical cabinet, already at daggers drawn with the whole military class, which is naturally delighted to see this attack on its enemy, may be thought of as not particularly well pleased over a work which gives popular expression to the opinion that the Liberal policy as regards national armaments is dangerously or meanly inadequate. The Germans, as may be supposed, get considerable pleasure from the spectacle of the fast-anchored isle thus "frighted from its propriety," and some one of them has written an article, not the most brilliant in the world in point of wit, but expressing such a contemptuous acceptance of the situation described by the Dorking volunteer as is not calculated to soothe the Heligoland excitement!—We see, by the bye, that the author of "Dame Europa's School," another specimen of the literature of the panic, but one far inferior to the *Blackwood* article, has come out with a novel, being moved to do so by the success of his satire. "Tom Pippin's Wedding" is the title of it, and according to all accounts it is extraordinary stuff. The *Athenæum* quotes among other passages this: "One has heard drunkards blaspheme, and madmen rave, but for downright, cool profanity, for simple prostitution of all that men and angels reverence, give me a couple of evangelical ministers talking Scripture during a six-mile drive." The silliness and vulgarity of other passages, however, more than equal the intolerance—if that be the name of it—of this. A set of words is wanting for the expression of the movements of minds and hearts of a certain size. Intolerance which argues a certain amount of deliberation and thoughtfulness, and a certain genuine warmth of feeling in itself respectable, is hardly the term to apply to the state of mind expressed in these words.

—"The eminent barrister and historian," as his daughter in her biography of him calls Mr. John Adolphus, will hardly be known to many of our readers either as a historian or a barrister, although he was in good practice as a criminal lawyer, and although, some half-century ago, his very high Tory history of England under George the Third and his memoirs of the French Revolution were in favor among people of old-fashioned principles. But although his books are forgotten, and the eminence which his daughter's affection takes for real was but very factitious, her filial piety will probably secure for him in literature the niche which he failed of securing for himself. Her biography of him is an interesting and very readable book, full of gossip about the London of the beginning of this century, its theatres, literary cliques, taverns, ordinaries, spouting clubs, coffee-rooms, and all the strange fashions and habits of "the town." Among a thousand similar other things that the writer tells us is this dubious piece of philology about a slang term which still holds its own in England, and has some currency in this country. "The fashion of the house," says Adolphus, speaking of a tavern called the Queen's Head, in Duke's Court, "was to order spirits in a pewter half-quartern measure, which the drinker mixed with water according to his taste. It was frequently the fashion to say, 'Now I'll have another quartern, and go.' In process of time the order was cut down to the last word, 'Waiter, bring me a go;' and from that house, and from that mode of expression, the word extended probably over the whole kingdom as synonymous with half a quartern of spirits." If Mr. Adolphus's memory does not play him false, he was connected with one of our customs which has always seemed to most people to require explanation, and which he thus explains. "When a boy at school, he used to spend his holidays with a great-uncle, residing in Sackville Street, of whom he stood in great awe, and in whose house he had but doleful days of it, his only solace in his dreariness being a print-shop at the corner of the street, and the kindness of a lady "of high fashion and great beauty" who lived near, and occasionally gave him sweetmeats and kisses. On the day on which he wore his first chimney-pot hat, he paid a visit to this leader of fashion, and she in joke put the boy's hat on her own head, and liking the look of herself in the new head-dress, she resolved to wear it into the Park, whither she was about to ride. This she did at once, and from then till now, in spite of attempts at innovation, the fashion has sustained its ground.

#### PAUPERISM IN ENGLAND.\*

MR. MAINE, in his recent remarkable work on "Village Communities," has made the ingenious observation that pauperism was first pressed

\* "Pauperism: Its Causes and Remedies. By Prof. Henry Fawcett." New York: Macmillan & Co. 1871. 12mo, 370 pp.

upon the attention of English statesmen when the old "cultivating-groups" of England, with their community of lands, began to fall to pieces, and the modern unequal division of landed property to take their place. This process of dissolution is still continuing in Great Britain, making more unequal the holding of land, and accordingly adding to the many difficulties of England's great problem—pauperism. During the last one hundred and fifty years, as Prof. Fawcett shows, nearly 7,500,000 acres have been taken by Acts of Parliament from the common lands, both arable and grazing, of Great Britain—that is, from the use and enjoyment of the poor—and added mainly to larger estates. Early even in the feudal ages, when the "village community" had partly given place to the "manor," population in certain districts of England began to press upon space, and combined with the breaking up of "commons," the ignorance of the laboring class, and the difficulty of communication, to create local problems of pauperism. Throughout the early English history, we find various Acts of Parliament dealing with this question, especially endeavoring to prevent indiscriminate almsgiving, and to distinguish between voluntary and involuntary poverty. Still, owing to increasing inequality of property, to the effect of foreign wars, and to unwise legislation, pauperism steadily increased throughout the kingdom.

The special legislation against this evil, the "Poor Law" of England, dates from the reign of Elizabeth. Under this act, for the first time, every needy person had a legal right to claim relief. To afford funds for this public assistance, rates were laid upon real estate. The able-bodied were compelled to work, or the cost of maintaining them was thrown upon their near relations, if they were able to bear it. Workhouses were established, and overseers of the poor appointed, who were responsible for the administering of relief. This act has been substantially imitated by the most recent legislation of the United Kingdom, and was undoubtedly wise in its provisions. For a hundred and fifty years, it worked comparatively well; vagrancy and mendicancy diminished under it, and the great evil seemed possible to be controlled. Gradually, however, a history of blunders and mistakes in the treatment of this perplexing matter began, from which England has never yet recovered.

That dangerous form of public charity, "outdoor relief," crept in; the workhouse test was dropped; allowances were given by the overseers of the poor to make up for deficient wages. "Settlement laws" were passed, which restrained poor workingmen from migrating from a parish where the labor market was overstocked to one where there was a demand. Even illegitimacy was encouraged, by a larger allowance being granted by the parish to a poor woman for an illegitimate than a legitimate child. Under this vicious system, a pauper became better cared for than a hard-working laborer, and that most wretched human condition, where people live by the cunning, deceit, and dependence of beggary—a state often more fatal to character than courses of absolute crime—became a profession, and was transmitted sometimes for several generations. In 1832, Prof. Fawcett states, the evil had reached a gigantic condition. Rates increased so as to threaten the absorption of the whole rent of the land. In one estate near Cambridge, 500 acres rented for about £1 per acre, while the annual poor-rates amounted to £250, the owner also testifying that his loss every year, from being obliged to employ pauper labor, was £100 more.

The discouraging effect upon honest labor of this public support of an army of able-bodied paupers can hardly be imagined. Thus, as Mr. Fawcett well puts it, a laboring man, by dint of much economy, self-control, and hard labor, saves sufficient to purchase a small annuity, and to procure, when he is old and broken-down, an income of five shillings a week. Another spends all his savings at the ale-house, and leads a lazy, dissolute life, leaving his family in misery. At precisely the same age, all he has to do is to apply to the parish for relief, and, without any unpleasant publicity or obligation to reside in the workhouse, he receives the same income—five shillings a week. Even during the years when they were able to labor, it often happened that the pauper received more than the industrious laborer could earn. As Prof. Fawcett remarks (from whose clear sketch this *résumé* is taken), "England was brought nearer to ruin by the old Poor Law than she ever was by a hostile army." The ghastly and corrupting effects of this blundering legislation are still visible throughout England.

There was one mistake, however, made by the British statesmen in treating this evil which it seems to us Mr. Fawcett does not sufficiently estimate—we mean their neglect of any general scheme for popular education. During those same centuries when this evil was reaching such tremendous proportions in England, two other communities, Holland and



New England, had instituted a system of popular education which has done more to check pauperism in their limits than any other one cause. Had England begun with education before alms in assisting the laboring classes, her future would have been very different.\*

The new Poor Law of England dates from 1834. Under it the "work-house test" was revived, and the assistance by "allowances" abolished. The "laws of settlement" were made easier for the laborer, so that he could go where his labor was in demand; illegitimacy was checked by making the father responsible for the support of the child; and the whole administration of pauperism improved by freeing it of many abuses. Under this legislation, the increase of paupers was undoubtedly checked, and the cost of pauperism diminished throughout the kingdom, from an average of eight shillings per caput of the whole population, to five or six shillings. The whole mode of relief was reformed by a more general application through the authorities of the workhouse test; that is, by requiring every alleged pauper to live and work in the almshouse. Still, even with this reformed legislation, this terrible disease and national evil of Great Britain reached such a point as to inspire all thoughtful Englishmen with anxiety and alarm. Though the increase of national wealth is estimated at \$50,000,000 per annum, the increase of poverty seems to keep pace with it. Every winter in London, it is estimated, there are 170,000 paupers within the limits, and the pauper children of the kingdom are said to number the vast multitude of half a million. The relation, too, of outdoor and indoor pauperism is not satisfactory. Throughout England, only one-eighth of the paupers are inmates of the workhouse, while in Ireland the reverse is the fact, the indoor paupers being to the outdoor as five to one—a much more sound, economic condition.

In fact, we may say, in summary, that Prof. Fawcett's history of the condition of England in this matter is exceedingly discouraging. We think, perhaps unreasonably so, he takes the "hard," economic, and despairing view of the question, while the remedies which he proposes are some of them as hopeless as the disease. We have a little query here in our own mind as to his statistics. The English custom is to class all as "paupers" who receive any assistance, however small, from the public authorities. But manifestly a hard-working, industrious, independent laborer, who fell into a temporary misfortune and was helped out of it by a small assistance from the overseers of the poor, should not be ranked with the degraded class of "paupers." So that when we hear of 170,000 paupers in London, we need to know how far those were dependent on the public before we make up our minds as to the extent of the evil.

In this city, for instance, there are some 22,000 persons aided each winter, to a very small extent, by the Commissioners of Charities. They are notoriously not "paupers," and support themselves the rest of the year, bringing up, many of them, honest and industrious families. So when we hear from Mr. Fawcett of the terrible increase of pauperism in Australia and the United States, and of "110,000 persons receiving outdoor relief in Philadelphia," and of "9,000 being inmates of the almshouse" in a single season, we know that his constitutional tendency, or his contact with this gloomy subject, has thrown a cloud over all his views, and obscured even his examination of statistics. We have not the Almshouse Reports of Philadelphia at hand, but such statistics as the above are utterly incredible. So far from pauperism increasing in our cities, the Report of the New York Commissioners of Charities for 1871 shows that, while the number of inmates of the almshouses of this city on January 1, 1850, was 1,313, or 1 in 423 of the population of the city, on January 1, 1870, it was only 1,114, or 1 in 808. The number assisted by outdoor relief seems to remain about the same, year by year, being 23,034 in 1865, and 22,782 in 1870. The expense of the relief of the outdoor poor averaged ten cents per caput of our population in 1865, and was eight cents in 1870. That for hospitals for the poor was eighty-seven cents per caput in 1865, and eighty-seven cents in 1870. And yet it must be remembered that New York is the centre of the foreign pauperism of the country, about twelve per cent. of our city paupers only being native-born.

The main remedy for this vast evil which presents itself to Mr. Fawcett's mind seems to us utterly futile—that is, the diffusion through the laboring classes of a sense of their duty to check population. Mr. Mill's admirers must have often felt that his chapters on this subject—"the voluntary checks" of population—are the least satisfactory of his well-known treatise. Mr. Fawcett follows in his footsteps. Their positions are unassailable, economically, but they are such as a laboring class can never be induced to recognize; and the notion that pauperism can ever be

checked by proper views of the workingman's duty in this matter seems to us as wild as the favorite theorem of the female reformers—that men and women can work together in public life, and forget the relations of sex.

Mr. Fawcett's least satisfactory chapter is on what is generally held as the most "advanced" of the recent methods of dealing with pauper children—the "placing-out system." The great objection to it, in the mind of this English economist, is that this charity offers a reward to pauperism, as the pauper's child is thus treated better than the self-supporting workingman's, and so the laborer is induced to increase his family, because he is sure of their being well cared for. Here, again, the philosopher of the study has lost sight of the nature of the laboring man in real life. No consideration as to the future support of his family ever affects a workingman in such matters. Furthermore, if anything would make him devoutly desire never to be the father of a family, it would be the prospect of his children being "placed out." In this city, the only thing often which prevents the lowest poor from sending their children to the almshouse, is the fear that they will be placed out or sent West, not through dread of any abuse to them, but from the blind force of the paternal instinct. Mr. Fawcett, too, forgets, under his scientific prepossessions, that the pauper's children, though, economically considered, they ought not to have been born, are not responsible for the fact; and society is responsible for giving them a fair chance in the world. Moreover, society, in Mr. Fawcett's own view, can do nothing more economical than in "placing out" these children. The great expense and danger to society are in "breeds" of paupers and vagrants. The almshouse tends to make pauperism inherited.

The emigration plan breaks up the line of descent, and converts the little pauper into a self-supporting producer. Besides, the annual cost of placing out or boarding out a pauper child is far less than his support in an almshouse. The experience of a very extended private charity in this city—the Children's Aid Society—is instructive in this regard, as this association have placed out some 25,000 poor and vagrant children in towns in the West at an average expense of only \$15 per caput, the children growing up to a very large degree honest, self-supporting, and industrious persons, some even having acquired large properties.

Mr. Fawcett's other remedies for this great disease of England are more wisely considered. His remarks on education, emigration, co-operation, the improvement in land-tenure, and against the enclosure of common lands, are deserving of careful study.

*The Fall of England: The Battle of Dorking. Reminiscences of a Volunteer.* By a Contributor to Blackwood. (New York: G. P. Putnam & Sons. 1871.)—There are few odder phenomena in modern politics than the feelings of the English people with regard to their national defences. They have deliberately, for over two centuries, chosen to rely on their fleet for protection against invasion, and have found their confidence in the advantages of this means of protection fully justified by experience. With the exception of the civil war of 1640, and the little raid of the Pretender in 1745, they have enjoyed for four hundred years complete freedom from hostile military operations on their soil, the beneficial influence of which on trade and industry, and on the growth and firm establishment of legal habits among the people, it is almost impossible to overestimate; and, indeed, nobody can form anything like an adequate idea of its value who does not consider what frightful evils the Continental nations have during the same period suffered from the movements of contending forces. It is, of course, impossible to say with certainty what cause has most contributed to any political results, but it seems safe to ascribe a very large proportion of the growth of English constitutional freedom to the absence of the military general, as a person of special weight or influence, from English politics. The growth, too, of that almost unique character, the Anglo-Saxon judge, who has played so important a part both in English and American political progress, is due to the total want of familiarity both of the governors and governed with the arbitrary processes of military rule. Moreover, the smallness and insignificance of the English army has undoubtedly had much to do with the subordination of the military to the civil power which is so marked and, to Continental Europeans, so striking a feature of English society. And yet, small as the army has been, it has sufficed not only for the preservation of order at home, but for operations of sufficient magnitude and brilliancy in Continental wars to acquire for the country a military reputation of the first order. The fleet, too, has not only proved a sufficient protection against invasion, but for

\* In London, \$25,000,000 per annum are spent on organized charities, while, till the present year, no general scheme of popular education was ever inaugurated.

more than a century gave Great Britain all but complete maritime supremacy. Nevertheless, the national mind has been haunted, probably ever since the Norman Conquest, with the fear that an invader might in some way give the fleet the slip, and that if he did he would surely succeed in subjugating the country. "Invasion panics" consequently form a regularly recurring incident of all periods of peace. Few Englishmen are, in fact, ever entirely free from the dread of invasion except when English armies are invading some other country. Nothing ever comes of these panics, because the fear is never strong enough to overcome the dislike of compulsory military service which an enlargement of the effective military force would make necessary, or to overwhelm the traditional suspicion of large standing armies. Consequently, after a few months' talk, the matter drops out of the public mind, till some imposing display of force on the part of some Continental power brings it back again. All panics, except the last one, were inspired by France. It was always a French army which was to land at Dover and take London, which city was sure to be given up to pillage—its wealth furnishing a temptation such as no French general was supposed to be able to resist. Indeed, one of the saddest evidences of French decline is to be found in the fact that Frenchmen no longer figure in the imaginary invasions of England conjured up by the British imagination. The Germans have succeeded to this as to so many other places of honor long held by their unhappy enemy, and it is a curious compliment to their discipline, and systematic method of spoiling their foes, that they are not expected to pillage London, but to levy heavy contributions on it.

The last panic has been created by the spectacle of German prowess in France, and, as usual, has called forth a good deal of writing, and amongst other things the brochure before us, a *jeu d'esprit* which first appeared in *Blackwood*, and has been since issued in a separate form, and enjoyed a great success. Its main object, apart from the general one of creating alarm about the state of the military defences of the country, is to show the uselessness of the volunteers, who go out every Easter Monday, and manoeuvre in helpless ignorance and inefficiency on open spaces near London, under the command of elected officers, who know no more of soldiering than the men. The writer, an old man, describes in the year 1925 a battle in which he as a volunteer took part, fifty years previously, in which the volunteer force was totally defeated, and the regular army sacrificed in the vain attempt to stay the march of a German army of invasion, which had effected a landing owing to the destruction of the iron clad fleet by a newly invented torpedo, and to the absence of a large portion of the regular force defending Canada against the United States and Ireland against the Fenians. The author is evidently either a soldier or a man very familiar with military operations, and he uses his knowledge sufficiently to make a picture of extraordinary vividness, and yet without ever laying aside the dimness of vision with which a civilian volunteer might be supposed to watch the operations of a campaign. Nothing, too, can be more skilful, in a literary way, than the incidental portrayal, in the course of the narrative, of the disorganization and want of preparation of the volunteers, and of the misery and humiliation wrought by foreign conquest. The tale has consequently been devoured, not less for its opportuneness as regards the state of the public mind, than for its artistic merit, which is, indeed, so high that only one man, Colonel Hamley—the author of "Lady Lee's Widowhood"—has been guessed at as likely to combine the needful military experience with the needful literary dexterity.

*Who is Responsible for the War?* By Scrutator. With an Appendix containing Four Letters reprinted (by permission) from the *Times*. (London: Rivingtons. 1871.)—The pseudonymous author of this little volume began the arguing of the question which forms its title in the columns of the London *Times* in October and November last. It was done in a controversy with Professor Max Müller, which was ably and rather politely conducted on both parts. At that time, the question was still of considerable practical interest and importance, as the victor was but claiming a part of the territory of the vanquished, chiefly on the ground of the latter having begun an unprovoked struggle. When the writer, having enlarged his arguments, published it in book-form, the war was over, and the preliminaries of peace about being concluded, but he seems still to have flattered himself that his appeal to the English public in favor of France might yet, through mediating voices, exercise some influence upon the final settlement. Now that the victor has safely carried off the spoils he demanded, the argument can have but a historical interest, and even that is somewhat narrowed down by the way "Scrutator" endeavors to prove his paradoxical

theses. For he puts all the blame upon Bismarck alone; represents King William and Germany as having been drawn into the war by the "diabolical" manoeuvres of that man of "blood and iron;" "excepts the Crown Prince of Prussia from all the strictures expressed or implied" in his pages; admits that the French, before the war, betrayed as much longing for the Rhine as the Germans for Alsace and Lorraine, and that the Emperor Napoleon and his ministers were "reckless and criminal" in opening the contest. His impeachment of Prussia, however—that is, as its development shows it, of Bismarck—is broad enough. He "has endeavored to establish," among other minor points, the following:

"That the Hohenzollern candidature was a legitimate grievance to France."

"That the French Government . . . really desired a pacific solution of the question."

"That Count Bismarck got up the Hohenzollern intrigue with his eyes wide open to all the consequences that have followed."

"That Prussia never withdrew, directly or indirectly, the candidature of Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern, and that the eventual retirement of the Prince took place in such a way as to leave the grievance of France precisely where it was at the commencement of the quarrel."

"That, nevertheless, France still sought a pacific solution."

"That Count Bismarck . . . precipitated the war by the gratuitous invention and publication of a fictitious affront offered by the King of Prussia to the French Ambassador at Ems."

"That Count Bismarck requires French territory, not as a security against French aggressiveness, but as a means of keeping up the military system of Prussia and keeping down German liberalism."

To prove all this, "Scrutator" quotes sundry diplomatic notes, despatches, and articles, none of which, if we remember right, contains anything new to the journal-reading public. It is in their juxtaposition and the dexterous drawing of inferences that he displays his skill in defending assertions which, in their entirety, hardly deserve a serious refutation. Strictly speaking, he convinces the reader of none of his points; and all he makes plausible is that Bismarck was not at all unpleasantly surprised by the eagerness with which Napoleon grasped the pretext of the Hohenzollern candidature for plunging France, unprepared as she was, into a war which the Prussian statesman—and, in fact, the whole world—had foreseen, or by the mad fury with which sincere and hired chauvinism answered to the Duc de Gramont's warlike announcements; that, knowing that war must come, he used all the means in his hand—means fair and unfair—to put France in the wrong before the world, and to inflame the German mind, north and south of the Main; and perhaps also that, after seeing with what enthusiasm Germany, the whole of Germany, was ready to take up the gauntlet flung into her face by her infatuated neighbor, he was not inclined to let slip the opportunity of fighting the battle, which had to be fought one day, at a moment ill-selected by the foe, and of uniting the two sections of Germany by victories won in a common defence.

*The Psalms.* The Common Version revised for the American Bible Union, with an Introduction and Occasional Notes. By Thomas J. Conant. (New York: American Bible Union; London: Trübner & Co.)—Long before the revision of the English Bible was seriously undertaken in England, the American Bible Union had entered upon the same project, and had published several books of both the Old and the New Testaments. These revisions, being the work of individual translators, are of different degrees of merit, and lack that general consent of scholars which is counted upon to give favor to the work of the English revisers. Moreover, though scholars of other communions have been employed upon the work, the fact that it was begun in the interest of the Baptists must always prejudice it somewhat in the view of the church universal. Nevertheless, the Bible Union has made some improved readings, which might be adopted with advantage by the English Commission sitting in the Jerusalem Chamber of Westminster Abbey. Dr. Conant is a good Hebraist, and his part of the revision is performed with conscientious thoroughness, yet with a wise regard for the hold of the standard version upon the popular mind. He has not attempted an independent translation of the Psalms, but a revision of the common English version with a more exact conformity to the Hebrew. This principle is correct; for, in preparing anew the Bible for the people, regard must be had to the purity and integrity of the English tongue as well as to the more advanced state of sacred philology. The scholars meeting in the Jerusalem Chamber may know Hebrew and Greek better than King James's translators, but it may well be questioned whether they know English better; and a revision of the English version, adhering



as closely as possible to the present text, is, perhaps, more to be desired than a new translation from the original Scriptures. Sometimes the change of a single word makes the sense more clear, and adds to the strength of the English. Thus, in Ps. xviii. 15, Dr. Conant reads, "The foundations of the world were *made bare*," where the common version has "discovered." So in Ps. ii. 5, "Will confound them in his hot displeasure" is an improvement upon "vex them in his sore displeasure." Again, in Ps. xlv. 1, "My heart is overflowing with a goodly theme" is more precise than "My heart is inditing a good matter"; and a new sense is given to v. 8 by the rendering, "Myrrh and aloes, cassia, are all thy garments; from palaces of ivory, stringed instruments cheer thee." Such examples of the improvement of the sense, without detriment to the English, might be multiplied from the revision of Dr. Conant. But the substitution of *bowled* for *cast* in the pathetic cry, "Why art thou cast down, O my soul?" (Ps. xlii. and xliii.), adds nothing either to the meaning or to the sentiment; and in Ps. xviii. 7, the graphic description, "Then the earth shook and trembled; the foundations also of the hills moved and were shaken," is not improved by Dr. Conant's reading, "Then the earth shook and *quaked*; and the foundations of the mountains *trembled*, and were shaken;" while the emphatic repetition in v. 10, "He rode upon a cherub and did fly; yea, he did fly upon the wings of the wind," is quite impaired by the phrase, "and *soared* along on wings of the wind." In some instances, as in Ps. xix. 3, Dr. Conant has adopted what appears to us the less accurate and facile of the various readings of the Hebrew text. Upon the whole, his revision is to be regarded as tentative rather than complete, a help toward an improved version, not that version itself. The poetic form and the explanatory notes add to the value of his scholarly work for the use of the general reader.

*From Fourteen to Fourscore.* By Mrs. S. W. Jewett. (New York: Hurd & Houghton. 1871.)—In the short "introduction" to this interesting story, the author informs us that she wrote it "to please herself." And this assertion is well sustained throughout the book, in the character which she has chosen to personate. It might easily pass for the veritable transcript of an old lady's journal and reminiscences, written out "with no view to publication," but to gratify a favorite grandchild. We do not mean by this to imply that it is not also likely to please others, but simply that it is not written in the interests of and theory, or party, or sect—that it is not didactic—that it cannot properly be classed among the "religious" novels, though there is a good deal of religion in it—that it can hardly be called even a "love story," if that means following the chequered fortunes of two persons through many fears and joys, doubts and hopes, to the inevitable conclusion. It is rather a collection of several love-passages, with quite the usual amount of cross-purposes, united, however, by the author's personality, to whose own story the main interest of course belongs. "If there is a moral to my story," the author says, "it is better that my life should teach it than my words." The reader, therefore, need not fear being preached to, though there are many passages which he may skip as prosy, if he is hunting only for incidents. It belongs rather to the "quiet" class of novels than the exciting, yet it never degenerates into dullness. The mere scenery of the narrative is of the slightest kind, and somewhat too vague, perhaps; but this is far from being the case with the sketches of character, which really form the true and permanent value of the book, and are positive additions to our spiritual portrait-gallery. Prominent among these are "Aunt Rebecca" and "Aunt Content"—the two most interesting persons in the book, unless the narrator herself be an exception. Both of these have had their lifelong trials, arising in each instance from disappointed love. But in the one case the lover's death brought the disappointment, and in the other his marriage. There is also a similarity in the two cases, in that both have sisters for rivals; but with the difference that the sister of Aunt Rebecca is a successful rival, and the sister of Aunt Content a disappointed one. Yet the former could be called successful only in a very literal and worldly sense. She is aware that her husband has given her but "a divided heart," the unmarried sister being still the most deeply loved. And in her treatment of this very difficult relation, the author seems to us to have shown rare delicacy and truth of sentiment. The reader will find here no justification of "elective affinities," or anything of the sort, in opposition to the true sanctity of marriage.

The contrast between the two sisters—that is, between the mother and aunt of our heroine—is admirably rendered, and not less so is the difference between the two "Aunts" already spoken of—Aunt Content, who

is, upon the whole, our favorite, being of the homely sort, and Aunt Rebecca more refined. And yet the homeliness of the former is only of the speech and manner. There is no lack of true delicacy in the spirit of this excellent woman. "But why give us these sentiments in so homely a form, then?" it may be asked. "Why must a beautiful thought be degraded by vulgarity of style and constant violations of pure English?" It would be answer enough, perhaps, to say that, as a portraiture of New England life, these little touches of coarseness must not be omitted. But we maintain, further, that there is, indirectly, a valuable purpose to be answered by it, inasmuch as it reminds the "educated" classes of what they are so apt to forget—that defects of education are compatible not only with sterling worth, but also with the truest delicacy and refinement of feeling.

We have said that there is a good deal of religion in this story, though it cannot be classed as a religious novel. Very little theology is introduced, and it would be difficult to assign that little to any one church or sect. But it certainly is of the healthy kind. It encourages no morbid excitement. It spins no wiredrawn subtleties. It refers continually to life, and believes, with Swedenborg, whom the book sometimes quotes, that "the life of religion is to do good."

Of defects in the book, we cannot say that we have discovered many worth noting. There is sometimes a little carelessness of grammar which might easily have been avoided. There are characters whom we would gladly have heard more of that are dropped too soon by the way. And, finally, Philip, who was meant to be the hero, decidedly falls off in interest in the latter half of the volume.

*The Annual Register: A Review of Public Events at Home and Abroad for the Year 1870.* New Series. (London: Rivingtons. 1871.)—This is a large, well-printed volume, consisting of two parts; the first comprising the "English and Foreign History" of the year, and a "Retrospect of Literature, Art, and Science;" and the second a "Chronicle of Remarkable Occurrences," an "Obituary of Eminent Persons," sketches of "Remarkable Trials," and "Public Documents and State Papers," besides some lists of minor interest. The whole second part, with the exception of the obituaries of Alexandre Dumas and Montalembert, and a few documents and "occurrences," is exclusively devoted to English subjects. Nor does the literary "Retrospect" review any production of the foreign press. The "History" is far from being equally partial—France, as might be expected, occupying a very prominent place in its foreign division. A separate chapter treats of Germany and Austro-Hungary; another of Rome, Italy, Spain, and Portugal; and another, very briefly, of a number of other countries in Europe, Asia, and America. Africa, however, is passed over unnoticed, Asia is represented only by China—the topic being the Tien-tsin massacre—and the death of President Lopez of Paraguay is the only event recorded of South America. This sparingness is the more surprising in a book which devotes no less than 145 pages to chronicling events and accidents of merely passing interest, such as "the theft of Colonel Hickie's child at Maidenhead," a "burglary at the American Minister's," the "accouchement of the Princess Mary of Teck," the "destruction of the Old Star and Garter Hotel, Richmond," murders, collisions, explosions, gales, disasters at sea, banquets, riots, executions, colliery accidents, and similar sensational things. The whole of the compilation, however, is readable, and some of its more important parts are very well done. Such is, among other historical portions, the account of the situation in France before and at the beginning of the war. The narrative of the military events is clear, comprehensive, and attractive; but here and there not quite accurate in its details. It is not correct that McMahon's army, "on the Thursday morning before the battle of Wissemburg," numbered only "40,000 men," nor that at Wörth it "contested the ground desperately for fifteen hours;" and still less correct that of its numbers, "scarce 5,000 remained on Saturday night to retrace their steps, broken and dispirited, towards Châlons." The figures regarding the forces in besieged Paris are rather loosely and contradictorily given (p. 179 and p. 211). The loss of the French "at Chevilly and Chilleurs," before Orleans, December 4—"no less than 14,000 prisoners"—is greatly exaggerated. Other inaccuracies of the same kind are probably typographical errors. "Nearly 300,000" (p. 179), as the number of the troops "of Bazaine . . . shut up within the fortifications of Metz," is probably a misprint for nearly 200,000. "180,000 men," referring to the army with which McMahon marched from Châlons to Sedan, stands for 130,000, or possibly for 150,000; "10,000 prisoners," stated as the loss of General Von der Tann in the battle of Coulmiers, stands either for 1,000 or 2,000, the number claimed by the victorious French commander.

"Frossard, with the 7th Corps" (p. 159), is an obvious misprint for *Frossard with the 2d Corps*. "At Ognon" (p. 218), is a mistake for *on the Ognon*, Von Werder having defeated the French on the river, and not at a place of that name. The revision of the foreign names is, in general, somewhat defective. We find "Pinard" for Picard (p. 135), "L'Amirault" and "L'Admiraut" for Ladmiraute, or L'Admirault; "Hassner" for Hasner, "Borez" for Baez. The writer on "Austro-Hungary" speaks of "Czechs and Gallicians, Poles, Slovenes" [sic], etc., with evidently very little knowledge of Slavic affairs. The "English History" is very exhaustive. Some of the literary pieces betray a decidedly able hand.

*The Historical Reader*, embracing Selections from Standard Writers of Ancient and Modern History, interspersed with illustrative Passages from British and American Poets; with Explanatory Observations, Notes, etc.: to which are added a Vocabulary of Difficult Words and Biographical and Geographical Indexes. By John J. Anderson, A.M. (New York: Clark & Maynard. 1871.)—This is a rather long title, but its length is justified by the contents of the volume, every part of which is carefully compiled or elaborated. "As its name indicates, it is intended to be used, not as a book of lessons to be committed to memory and recited, but as a *Reading Book*, to be used independently, or to accompany any of the ordinary school manuals of history, and to be read in connection with the study of them." The selections—which are chronologically arranged within the three divisions of "American History," "English, Scottish, and French History," and "Miscellaneous . . . History" of other nations, ancient and modern—are well adapted to make the youthful reader familiar not only with the details of a multitude of important events and with the characters of many historical personages, but also with the best productions of English and American historical literature, and a number of writers belonging to other fields and nations. Both as to names and contents, the extracts are well selected, but chiefly as regards the former. Not only such English or American historians proper are represented as Clarendon, Burnet, Hume, Robertson, Ferguson, Gibbon, Mitford, Lingard, Milman, Macaulay, Grote, Merivale, Freeman, Froude, Irving, Bancroft, Prescott, Hildreth, and Motley, but also Milton, Berkeley, Chatham, Goldsmith, Burke, Scott, Southey, Bulwer, De Quincey, Thackeray, Dickens, Everett, Story, Greeley; as well as several writers of antiquity—Herodotus, Xenophon, Plato, Josephus, Tacitus; and some French—Rollin, Thiers, Lamartine, Michelet. German literature has, however, only one representative—Niebuhr, and Italian literature none. The compiler's introductory or explanatory notes and biographical notices are to the point, brief and well-worded, though not entirely free from mistakes, some of which may, however, be but typographical errors. James Fenimore Cooper died in 1851, not, as given, "in 1859;" the battle of Arbela was not fought in "330," but in 331; Halicarnassus was not "a city of Ionia," but a Dorian city of Caria; Thiers was not "a member of the Provisional Government that succeeded the Revolution of 1848." Nor do we agree with Mr. Anderson when he states that the "Consulate and Empire" of the writer just named is "considered one of the greatest historical works of modern times;" when he ranks the "History of Turkey" among "the most noted" of Lamartine's works; or when he calls Froude's style "strong and brilliant." In the notice of Niebuhr, there is no mention of his death. Nor ought the "History of the United Netherlands" to go unmentioned under "Motley," or the "History of the Jews" under "Milman," while many less important titles are given in other notices. The pronunciation of French names is often rather strangely marked, as the following specimens may show: "*Do-maul*" (D'Aumale), "*shaveng de mar*" (Champ de Mars), "*careduhng*" (Verdun), "*sang ahn-twah*" (St. Antoine). These defects are, however, very slight compared to the merits and usefulness of the "Reader."

*Musings over the Christian Year and Lyra Innocentium*. By Charlotte Mary Yonge. *A Concordance to the Christian Year*. (New York: Pott & Amery.)—To make an index or a concordance is in itself so thankless an office, so utterly unselfish and unprofitable a labor for the doer, but so serviceable to the reading public, that one who takes the pains should have the praise, and not be permitted to veil himself behind an anonymous publication. All admirers of Keble will be grateful for the "Concordance to the Christian Year;" but none more so than the hard-pressed clergyman, who, at the last moment, thinks to embellish his sermon with an apt poetic phrasing of his text or theme. The work is very thoroughly and satisfactorily done.

As an introduction to her "Musings," Miss Yonge has put together her own recollections of Keble with those of several friends, thus giving, in an easy, inartificial way, a picture of the everyday life of Hursley vicarage and an insight into the character and habits of the Christian poet. There was little in the outside life of such a man to attract the notice of the world; but it is pleasant to observe his kindness to the poor, his gentle fidelity in his work, his devout zeal for his church—though in the latter Miss Yonge sometimes causes Keble to appear less lovable in the reflection of her own intenser churchism. Her "Musings," too, sometimes rob a poem of its charm by translating it into the rugged baldness of a doctrine which it had deftly covered with the web of verse. A passionate admirer, a grateful protégé, a very devotee at the shrine of Keble, she gives an excess of attention to minor incidents and secondary qualities. These "Musings," however, are not without value in interpreting some of the obscurer poems by the incidents or frames of feeling which gave them birth; and they will take their place in Christian literature among the elegiac tributes of piety to genius, of love to goodness, and of faith and hope to the ideal life.

*The Daughter of an Egyptian King*. Translated from the German of George Ebers. By Henry Reed. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1871.)—The historical novel which hovers about the dubious border between fact and fiction is always in danger of being too fictitious for the confidence of fact, or too matter-of-fact for the illusion of fiction. And when its avowed purpose is the restoration of the manners and customs of a remote antiquity, it is likely to be too dry for a story or too fanciful for a picture of actual life. The legend of Nitetis, which Herodotus has preserved under three distinct forms in his "Thalia," is wrought by Dr. Ebers into a highly dramatic story, through the skilful combination of various versions. The daughter of Amasis of Egypt having been demanded by Cambyes in marriage, he palmed off as his own Nitetis, the daughter of his predecessor, whose throne he had usurped. The fair princess won the heart of the stern and fitful Persian, but just as he was about to consummate the marriage his jealousy was excited against his brother, and in a rage he sentenced Nitetis to be dragged through the streets of Babylon and buried alive. Before the sentence was executed, Cambyes became aware of his mistake—but too late, for Nitetis had already swallowed a deadly cosmetic. After her death the king learned of the trick that had been played upon him, and turned his grief to revenge upon the faithless Egyptian king. But the story is only a screen upon which to paint the manners and customs of the Egyptians and the Persians. Dr. Ebers is a learned Egyptologist, Director of the Museum at Jena, and author of "*Aegypten und die Bücher Moses*" (reviewed in Vol. VII. of the *Nation*, No. 175). He has successfully reproduced the Egypt of the Persian invasion; his work is remarkably free from anachronisms, and will be valuable for consultation; but the story drags with the weight of the speeches, for the doctor has made every character as learned and technical as himself.

\* Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.

## BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Prices.
Anderson (J. J.), <i>The Historical Reader</i> .....	(Clark & Maynard) \$1 80
Boyd (M.), <i>Reminiscences of Fifty Years</i> .....	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Collins (M.), <i>Marquis and Merchant</i> , swd.....	50
Dickens (C.), <i>Pickwick Papers</i> .....	" "
Dindorf (W.), <i>Sophocles</i> .....	(Harper & Bros.)
Downing (C.), <i>Selected Fruits</i> .....	(John Wiley & Son)
Droz (G.), <i>Around a Spring</i> , swd.....	(Holt & Williams) 75
Dunn (H.), <i>The Study of the Bible</i> .....	(G. P. Putnam & Sons) 1 50
Eberhardt (M.), <i>Die Rechtstellung des Weibes innerhalb der Ehe</i> , swd.....	(Meininger & Schick)
Folsom (N. S.), <i>The Four Gospels</i> , 2d ed.....	(A. Williams & Co.)
Forsyth (W.), <i>Novels and Novelists of the 18th Century</i> .....	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Garrett (Ruth and Edward), <i>The Quiet Miss Godolphin, and A Chance Child</i> , 1 vol.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Gilbert (Rev. D.), <i>The Love of Jesus</i> .....	(John Murphy & Co.) 50
Glenn (Jessie), <i>Poems</i> .....	(Bannan & Ramsey)
Hawthorne (Nathaniel), <i>Twice Told Tales</i> .....	(Jas. R. Osgood & Co.)
Mosses from an Old Manse.....	" "
Helps (A.), <i>Life of Hernando Cortes</i> .....	(G. P. Putnam & Sons) 2 00
Henson (W. S.), <i>Modern Astronomy</i> .....	(Newark)
Howe (Fisher), <i>The True Site of Calvary</i> .....	(A. D. F. Randolph & Co.) 1 00
Hutchings (J. M.), <i>Scenes of Wonder and Curiosity in California</i> , (A. Roman & Co.)	3 00
Jefflie (W. M.), <i>Good Selections in Prose and Poetry</i> , (J. W. Schermerhorn & Co.)	
Kingley (Chas.), <i>At Last: A Christmas in the West Indies</i> .....	(Macmillan & Co.) 2 00
Lebon (H.), <i>The Holy Communion</i> .....	(John Murphy & Co.) 1 00
Leighton (R. F. A. M.), <i>Greek Lessons</i> .....	(Ginn Bros.)
Lear (Edward), <i>Nonsense Songs, Stories, Botany, and Alphabets</i> .....	(Jas. R. Osgood & Co.)
Lever (C.), <i>Davenport Dunn</i> , swd.....	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 75
Lodeman (A.), <i>German Conversation Tables</i> , bds.....	(Holt & Williams) 40
Marryat (Florence), <i>Her Lord and Master</i> , swd.....	(Harper & Bros.) 50
Martin (Prof. B. N.), <i>Choice Specimens of American Literature</i> .....	(Sheldon & Co.)
Meredith (Owen) <i>Lucile and Other Poems</i> , swd.....	(Jas. R. Osgood & Co.) 50



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